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HUGHES'S EDUCATIONAL COURSE.

THE DIFFICULTIES

OF

ENGLISH

GRAMMAR AND ANALYSIS

SIMPLIFIED;

With a Brief Sketch of the History of the Language.

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PREFACE.

In the present work an attempt has been made to bring within a small compass, and to explain, some of the difficulties of our language, in order that young students may be relieved of the necessity of consulting text-book after text-book on Grammar, before they meet with that information which enables them to clear up some point which they have not fully understood. Many of the difficulties in question are presented in the Examination Questions, which will be found at the end of the book. These questions have been selected from the Pupil-teachers, Queen's Scholarship, Certificate, College of Preceptors (diploma), Oxford and Cambridge (senior), and the London Matriculation Examination Papers. The arrangement of the work coincides with the arrangement of the questions, which are, in reality, answered *seriatim* in the text. A brief sketch of the History of the Language is appended.

The book is designed specially for the use of pupil-teachers and students preparing for the Government Certificate Examination.

Much valuable information and many hints have been obtained from the "Historical Outlines of English Accidence," by Dr. Morris; the "Elements of the English Language," by Dr. Adams; and the "English Grammar," by C. P. Mason, Esq.; to which the Author is greatly indebted.

W. J. D.

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GRAMMAR AND ANALYSIS.

THE NOUN.

I.—Remarks on the Classes of Nouns.

§(1) (*a*) *Proper*, *Common*, and *Abstract Nouns*.

A *Proper Noun* is a Noun which distinguishes one particular individual from the rest of the individuals of the same kind or class, as,—*James*, *London*.

A *Common Noun* is a Noun which is applied to all the individuals of a kind or class, as,—*boy*, *man*, *dog*.

An *Abstract Noun* is the name of anything which can only be conceived of in the mind as having a separate independent existence, as,—*humility*, *virtue*, *wickedness*.

NOTE.—*James* is a Proper Noun because all individuals have not this name; but *boy* is a Common Noun because all boys are called by that name,—the name is common to them all. Several persons have the name of "James," it is true, and there is a London in America as well as in England, but still these are *proper names* or *Proper Nouns* because the former is not common to *all* men, nor the latter to *all* towns.

The word *proper* comes from the Latin *proprius*, one's own; so that a Proper Noun is, in reality, a name which is exclusively the *property* of a particular individual.

Abstract Nouns are generally the names of qualities. Now these qualities belong to individuals or things. But when we wish to consider them apart from the individuals or things to which they belong, and *draw them away*, as it were, from these, regarding them as having a separate independent existence, and make use of names by which to designate them, these names are called Abstract Nouns. Abstract Nouns are, in reality, a class of Common Nouns.

§(2) (*b*) *Collective Nouns* and *Nouns of Multitude*.

A *Collective Noun* is the name of a number of individuals viewed as one object, as,—

"These persons are called, when spoken of in a body, the *ministry*."

A *Noun of Multitude* is the name of a number of individuals each of which is viewed as a separate unit, as,—

"The *clergy were* called together by order of the bishop."

NOTE.—A *Collective Noun* takes a Verb in the *singular* number; a *Noun of Multitude* a Verb in the *plural* number. This distinction between a Collective Noun and a Noun of Multitude is not generally recognised. All Nouns denoting a collection of individuals, whether viewed as a whole or as separate objects, are, as a rule, called Collective Nouns. But the distinction above drawn will be found to be convenient, inasmuch as it lessens the difficulty of determining the *number* of the verb to which these Nouns are nominative.

Regarding all these Nouns as *Collective*, the rule with reference to the verb is, "that it is *singular* or *plural* according as the predominant idea in the mind is the *unity of the multitude* or the *multitude of the units*." The same Noun may be used as a Collective Noun and as a Noun of Multitude; for instance,—

"The *multitude was* dispersed" (Collective).
"The *multitude were* of different dispositions" (Multitude).

§ (3) (*c*) *Verbal Nouns* or *Gerunds*.

A *Verbal Noun*, or, as it is frequently called, a *Gerund*, is a word which is partly a Verb and partly a Noun, as,—

"*Reading* is a most agreeable occupation."

Beginners have often much difficulty in distinguishing between a Verbal Noun and a participle, but if they will bear in mind that a Verbal Noun is always either in the nominative case, subject of a Verb, or in the objective case, governed by a Transitive Verb or a Preposition, this difficulty will disappear.

Verbal Nouns may be in the nominative case, and at the same time govern a Noun or Pronoun in the objective case; or they may be in the objective case, and at the same time govern a Noun or Pronoun in the objective case, as,—

(1) "Hunting the hare is good sport."
(2) "I am fond of hunting hares."

In (1) *Hunting* is nominative case, subject of the Verb *is*.
hare - is objective case, governed by the Verbal Noun *hunting*.

In (2) *hunting* is objective case, governed by the Preposition *of*.
hares - is objective case, governed by the Verbal Noun *hunting*.

§ (4) Although the *Imperfect Participle* and the *Verbal Noun* now happen to be of the same form, such was not always the case. In Anglo-Saxon the termination of the Imperfect Participle was *ende;* in Old English this assumed the forms *ende, ande, inde;* and the change in form to *ing* is first observed in the 13th century.

In Anglo-Saxon there was a class of Verbal Nouns ending in *ung*, from which our termination of the Verbal Nouns is probably obtained. The Anglo-Saxon Dative Gerund ending in *anne* or *enne* also answers to our Verbal Noun in *ing;* and some are of opinion that it is from this dative termination that the suffix *ing* is obtained.

II.—Remarks on Gender.

§ (5) Many definitions of *Gender* are given in text-books on Grammar, some of which are very perplexing, and some of which—like "Gender is the distinction of sex"—are absolutely absurd.

The word Gender is derived from the Latin word *genus*, a kind or class; and simply signifies a class of Nouns or Pronouns.

All living creatures are either of the male sex or of the female sex. Things without life are of neither sex. Nouns are divided into classes, *the idea of sex forming the basis of the classification;* but instead of saying that they belong to certain *classes*, we say that they belong to certain *Genders*.

Nouns denoting *male beings* are said to be in the *Masculine Gender*, or to belong to the Masculine Class.

Nouns denoting *female beings* are said to be in the *Feminine Gender*, or to belong to the Feminine Class.

Nouns which denote either a male or a female are said to be in the *Common Gender*, or to belong to the Common Class.

Nouns denoting things without life are said to be in the *Neuter Gender*, or to belong to neither of the above classes.

We see, then, that Genders are classes of Nouns and Pronouns corresponding to the classes of things: of the male sex, things of the female sex, and things of neither sex.

The words *male* and *female* are applicable only to *living beings*, and the words *masculine* and *feminine* only to *names*.

§ (6) The distinction of Gender in Nouns standing for pairs of males and females is marked in three ways,—

(1) Quite different words are used.
(2) Different terminations are used.
(3) Prefixes denoting males and females are used.

Lists of the above will be found in most text-books on Grammar.

§ (7) *Ster* was the characteristic sign of the feminine up to the end of the 13th century; in the 14th century, however, this gave way to the Norman-French *ess*, which is now the most common of our suffixes to denote the feminine. We have now but one feminine in *ster*, viz., *spinster*. We have some forms which, etymologically speaking, are double feminines; *e.g.*,—

Songstress: feminine suffixes *ster* and *ess*.
Seamstress: ,, ,, ,,

The suffix *ster* is still to be found in many words, but it has lost its feminine signification, and mostly denotes the agent with a sense of depreciation.

In Old English *en* was a common feminine termination. This only survives in one word, *vixen*, the feminine of fox, formed from *vox*, a dialectic form of *fox*. The termination *ine* in *heroine*, *margravine*, &c., is of romance origin.

§ (8) As a rule the feminine is formed from the masculine; but the words *bridegroom*, *widower*, and *gander* are formed from the feminine.

The Old English for *goose* was *gôs* = gons, gans.
,, ,, *gander* was *gandra*.

The *d* and the *r* in the latter word are only euphonic; and *a* being the masculine suffix, the connection between the two words is clear.

Groom in the word *bridegroom* is a corruption of *goom* (Anglo-Saxon *guma*, man).

Widow, in Anglo-Saxon, was *wuduwe*.
Widower ,, ,, *wuduwa*.

The suffixes *e* and *a* were lost, and from what remained of the words our words *widow* and *widower* have been formed.

III.—Remarks on Number.

§ (9) In Old English *as*, *an*, *u*, *a*, and *o*, were plural terminations, these were afterwards reduced to *es*, *en*, and *e*, later still to *es* and *en*, and now the most common plural suffixes are *es* and *s*; *en* surviving only in a very few words, and in a corrupted form, as a provincialism.

§ (10) (*a*) Nouns ending in *s*, *ss*, *sh*, *ch*, and *x* form their plurals in *es*, as,—

Glasses, lashes, churches, boxes.

(*b*) Nouns of *pure English* origin ending in *f*, *fe*, *lf*, preceded by a long vowel, change the *f* into *v* and add *es*, as,—

Leaf, leaves; knife, knives; shelf, shelves.

But we have,—

Roof, roofs; hoof, hoofs; reef, reefs; fife, fifes; strife, strifes.

(*c*) In Nouns of romance origin ending in *f*, the *f* remains unchanged, and *s* only is added, as,—

Brief, briefs; grief, griefs; chief, chiefs.

(*d*) To Nouns ending in *ff* and *rf*, *s* only is added, as,—

Mastiff, mastiffs; scarf, scarfs.

(*e*) Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change the *y* into *i*, and add *es*, as,—

Lady, ladies; city, cities.

(*f*) Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel simply add *s*, as,—

Boy, boys; toy, toys; valley, valleys.

(*g*) Nouns ending in *o* as a rule add *es*, as,—

Hero, heroes; potato, potatoes; echo, echoes.

But Nouns ending in *io* generally take *s*, as,—

Folio, folios.

We have also,—

Cantos, grottos, dominos, quartos, mottos, solos, cuckoos, Hindoos.

(*h*) In compound words the plural is variously formed :—

(1) By adding *s*, as,—

Roundheads, blackbirds, &c.

(2) When the Adjective is the last part of the compound the plural suffix is added to the Noun, as,—

Courts-martial, cousins-german, attorneys-general.

(3) In prepositional compounds the plural suffix is added to the first word of the compound, as,—

Fathers-in-law, men-of-war, sons-in-law, &c.

(4) When *full* is added to a Noun *s* is added after this element, as,—

Handfuls, cupfuls, &c.

(5) When two titles are joined, the last usually takes the mark of the plural, as,—

Major-generals.

There are a few compounds like these in which both elements take the mark of the plural, as,—

Lord-justice	-	lords-justices.
Lord-lieutenant	-	lords-lieutenants.
Knight-templar	-	knights-templars.

§ (11) Plurals in *en*.

This plural suffix was originally found in many words, but now only appears in two or three words. It survives in some few words also in provincial dialects. In some districts in the north of England, for instance, we frequently hear *shoon* for *shoes*, *een* for *eyes*.

The recognised plurals in *en* are,—*oxen*, *brethren*, *children*. Some grammarians call *brethren* and *children* double plurals, regarding *r* or *er* as a corruption of the Anglo-Saxon *ra* or *ru*. This, however, does not seem to be the case. The *r* is not a plural element, it was simply added to strengthen the base; and to this strengthened base the plural termination was added. The Old English for *child* was *cild*, plural *cildr-u*. In the 12th and 13th centuries this form of the plural was converted into (1) *child-r-e*, and (2) *childr-e-n*.

In some northern dialects in the 14th century we find *childer* used as a plural, the *re* having become *er*; and this form still survives in provincial dialects of the north.

§ (12) The same word is sometimes used for the singular and plural, as,—

Deer, sheep, swine, &c.

Many words are used as plurals without the plural sign, as,—

Cavalry, infantry, fish, fowl, cattle, &c.

Many Nouns are used only in the plural, as,—

Annals, archives, assizes, bellows, bowels, compasses, entrails, goods, lungs, scissors, snuffers, tongs, trousers, &c.

Many Nouns have no plural forms, as,—

Honesty, meekness, compassion, &c.

Many Nouns retain their foreign plurals.

(1) From the Latin.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Medium	media
Apex	apices	Memorandum	memoranda
Appendix	appendices	Nebula	nebulæ
Desideratum	desiderata	Radius	radii
Focus	foci	Radix	radices
Formula	formulæ	Stratum	strata
Genius	genii	Vertex	vertices
Index	indices	Vortex	vortices
&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.

(2) From the Greek.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Analysis	analyses	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Antithesis	antitheses	Iris	irides
Automaton	automata	Oasis	oases
Axis	axes	Parenthesis	parentheses
Crisis	crises	Phenomenon	phenomena
Ellipsis	ellipses	Thesis	theses
&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.

(3) From other languages.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
French	Beau	beaux
	Madame	mesdames
	Monsieur	messieurs
Italian	Bandit	banditti
	Virtuoso	virtuosi
Hebrew	Cherub	cherubim
	Seraph	seraphim
	&c.	&c.

Alms, *riches*, and *eaves* are singular in form, but treated as plurals.

Alms, Old English *ælmesse*, *almesse*, *almes*. In Old English a plural of this is met with, *elmessen*, *almesses*.

Riches, Old English *richesse*. In Old English a plural of this is also met with, *richesses*.

Some Nouns have two plurals differing slightly in signification.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Brother	Brothers	of a family
	Brethren	of a community
Cloth	Cloths	different kinds of cloth
	Clothes	the clothes we wear
Die	Dies	stamps for coining
	Dice	cubes used for gaming
Genius	Geniuses	men of genius
	Genii	imaginary beings
Index	Indexes	tables of reference
	Indices	an algebraic term
Pea	Peas	the regular plural
	Pease	in a collective sense
Penny	Pennies	the regular plural
	Pence	in a collective sense

Many geographical names are frequently plural in form, as,—

Azores, Alps, Athens, Thebes, &c.

We say the *Miss Taylors* or the *Misses Taylor.*

IV.—Remarks on Case.

§ (13) *Case* is the form of a Noun or Pronoun which denotes the relation in which it stands to some other word in the sentence.

This definition is not altogether applicable to Case as denoted in our language at the present time when most of our Case-endings are lost. It should be supplemented by,—

But in our language Case is frequently denoted not by form, but by position, and by the sense of the sentence in which the Noun or Pronoun is found.

A Noun or Pronoun is in the *Nominative Case* when it is the subject of a sentence, that is, when it denotes that respecting which we make an assertion.

Nouns in the *Nominative Case* are not inflected to denote this, but the personal Pronouns *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, with their compounds, and the Relative Pronoun *who*, are inflected.

A Noun or Pronoun is in the *Possessive Case* when it denotes possession, and is followed by a Noun denoting what is possessed.

This is the only Case for which Nouns are inflected.

A Noun or Pronoun is in the *Objective Case* when it completes the meaning of a Transitive Verb, and when it is governed by a Preposition.

NOTE.—The oldest English had six Cases, viz.,—Nominative, Genitive, Vocative, Dative, Accusative, and Instrumental, and the Noun was inflected for each of these.

§ (14) *Formation of the Possessive Case.*

When a Noun is in the singular number the *Possessive Case* is formed by adding *'s*.

The Possessive Case of *boy* is *boy's*
,, ,, *girl* is *girl's*.

In the Anglo-Saxon, the Possessive ended in *es*, and the Nominative Plural in *as* and *es*. The vowel has been dropped in each of these terminations, and if we did not make use of the apostrophe ('), along with the *s*, in the Possessive Case, we could not so readily distinguish between the Possessive and the Nominative Plural, as the two forms would be identical. We should have *boys*, Possessive, and *boys*, Nominative Plural.

NOTE.—(*a*) When a Noun in the singular number, of more than two syllables, ends in *s* or *x*, the apostrophe only is used, as,—

Pericles' orations; *Socrates'* wife.

(*b*) In poetry the above is frequently the case with words of less than three syllables, as,—

Young *Paris'* face; your *highness'* love.

(*c*) In compound words the suffix is added to the last element, as,—

Father-in-law's shop; *son-in-law's* house.

(*d*) Singular Nouns ending in *es*, *ss*, *ce*, the latter having the sharp sound, merely add the apostrophe, as the addition of the *s* would not be euphonic, as,—

Moses' rod; for *goodness'* sake; for *conscience'* sake.

When the plural of a Noun is formed by adding *s* or *es*, the *Possessive Plural* is formed by simply adding the apostrophe after the *s*; the *s* being omitted for the sake of euphony, as,—

Boys' hats; *girls'* toys.

§ (15) The *Nominative Absolute.*

When a Noun or Pronoun is followed by a Participle by which it is qualified, but is not the subject of a finite Verb, the phrase in which it is found is called an *Absolute Phrase*, and the Noun or Pronoun is said to be in the *Nominative Absolute*, as,—

"The *man* being mistaken, we consulted what to do."

The *work* having been completed, we started home."

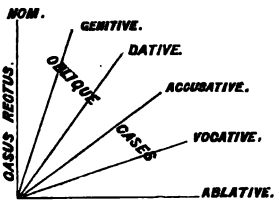
It will be seen that phrases in which the Nominative Absolute occurs have mostly an adverbial force.

NOTE.—In the oldest English the dative was the Absolute Case, just as the ablative is in Latin, and the genitive in Greek. The nominative began to displace it about the middle of the 14th century. A few instances of this construction are to be found in Milton, as,—

"*Me overthrown*," "*Us dispossessed*,"
"*Him destroyed*, all else will follow."

§ (16) The word *case* is taken from the Latin *casus*, a fall, probably in allusion to the way in which the different cases were originally represented by lines.

The nominative case was termed *casus rectus*, or upright case, in allusion to the perpendicular line. The other cases denote a certain declension of idea from the nominative. All cases except the nominative were termed *oblique cases*, in allusion to the line declining more or less from its *vertical* position.



The collection of the various forms which a Noun may assume to denote case is called the *Declension* of the Noun.

There was originally a mistaken idea that the *'s* of the possessive case was a contraction of *his;* and in our Prayer Book we find the expression, "for Jesus Christ *his* sake," that is, "for Jesus *Christ's* sake." The origin of the *'s* has already been shown, but the absurdity of the above idea will be at once seen by taking a Noun in the feminine gender and substituting *his* for *'s*. We should then have "Mary *his* book" instead of "*Mary's* book,"—a Pronoun in the masculine gender referring to a Noun in the feminine gender.

THE VERB.

I.—Remarks on the Classes of Verbs.

§ (17) There are several classifications of English Verbs. It must be borne in mind that every classification must include every Verb in the language, otherwise it is incomplete; and seeing that there are several classifications,

pupils should be most careful to guard against cross-classifications. One idea, and one only, must form the basis of each separate classification. It would be incorrect, for example, to classify Verbs as Transitive, Intransitive, and Auxiliary, as two ideas would be involved in the classification.

Books, when classified or arranged in a library, must be arranged either according to their authors or according to size, or with some other idea in the mind; but it would be impossible to classify them at the same time according to their authors and according to their size: such an attempt would only end in confusion, on account of its being a cross-classification.

Definitions should be carefully framed, so as to include every Verb. Verbs, for example, are generally classified into Transitive and Intransitive, but in many text-books the definitions of these two classes are not sufficiently wide to include every Verb in the language, in which case, of course, the classification will not suffice.

§ (18) The following are complete classifications of *Verbs*:—

I. (*a*) PRINCIPAL, including,—
  (1) TRANSITIVE.
  (2) INTRANSITIVE.
  (3) COPULATIVE.
  (*b*) AUXILIARY.

II. (*a*) FINITE.
  (*b*) INFINITE or INFINITIVE.

III. (*a*) REGULAR or WEAK.
  (*b*) IRREGULAR or STRONG.

Some Verbs, although included in each of the above classifications, receive special names on account of their special nature, as, for instance,—

(1) DEFECTIVE VERBS, such as *may*, *can*, *must*, *shall*, *will*.
(2) IMPERSONAL VERBS, in such sentences as *it rains*, *it freezes*.
(3) CAUSATIVE VERBS, such as *raise*, *fell*, *set*.
(4) FREQUENTATIVE VERBS, such as *glimmer*, *stagger*, *sparkle*.

§ (19) Definitions of the above.

I. (*a*) A *Principal Verb* is a Verb which may be used by itself with a complete meaning.

(1) A *Transitive Verb* denotes an action which passes over to an object.

(2) An *Intransitive Verb* denotes an action which is confined to the agent or doer.

(3) A *Copulative Verb* is a joining Verb, joining either two Nouns, or a Noun and a Pronoun, showing that they denote the same individual or thing; or joining a Noun or Pronoun and an Adjective, showing that the quality denoted by the Adjective is possessed by that for which the Noun or Pronoun stands.

(*b*) An *Auxiliary Verb* is a Verb which can be used only with some part of a Principal Verb to express various forms for Voice, Mood, or Tense.

EXAMPLES.

PRINCIPAL { John *struck* William (Transitive).
The boy *ran* away (Intransitive).
William *is* a man. John *seems* happy (Copulative).

AUXILIARY—I *can* fight. I *shall* sing. William *was* killed.

NOTE.—A list of the Auxiliary Verbs will be found under the heads Voice, Mood, and Tense.

The most common Copulative Verbs are: the Verb *to be*—in such sentences as "William *is* a man," "James *was* a bad boy," Man *is* mortal;"—*appear, become, grow, seem, look, prove*—in such sentences as "He *proved* a good man;"—*was esteemed, was elected*, &c.—in such sentences as "He *was esteemed* a good man," "He *was elected* general."

II. (*a*) A *Finite Verb* is one which agrees with a Nominative.

(*b*) An *Infinite* or *Infinitive Verb* is one which does not agree with the Nominative.

EXAMPLES.

FINITE: "John *is* a man;" "I *saw* a horse."

INFINITE: "I can *sing*;" "You must *go*;" "I like to *dance*."

III. (*a*) A *Regular* or *Weak Verb* is one in which the past tense, and the participle which enters into the passive voice, or the perfect tenses, are formed from the infinitive mood by the addition of *d* or *ed*.

(*b*) An *Irregular* or *Strong Verb* is one in which the past tense, and the participle which enters into the passive voice, or the perfect tenses, are formed from the infinitive mood in some other way than by adding *d* or *ed*.

EXAMPLES.

REGULAR : "I *worked* very hard;" "William was *killed*;" "I have *discovered* a wonderful animal."

IRREGULAR: "I *was* unfortunate;" "James *grew* a tall boy;" "I was *thrown* down the pit;" "The book has been *shown* to me many times."

The Infinitives of the above Verbs are respectively,—*work*, *kill*, *discover*, *be*, *grow*, *throw*, *show*.

§ (20) Attempts have been made to classify the Irregular Verbs. The following is the most common classification :—

(1) In which the forms for the present tense, past tense, and the passive or perfect participle are identical.

(2) In which only the forms for the past tense, and the passive or perfect participle are identical.

(3) In which the three forms for the above are different.

LISTS OF THE ABOVE.

I.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. OR PASS. PART.
Burst	burst	burst
Cast	cast	cast
Cost	cost	cost
Cut	cut	cut
Hit	hit	hit
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Knit	knit	knit
Let	let	let
Put	put	put
Rid	rid	rid
Set	set	set
Shed	shed	shed
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Slit	slit	slit
Split	split	split
Spread	spread	spread
Thrust	thrust	thrust

II.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. OR PASS. PART.
Abide	abode	abode
Behold	beheld	beheld
Beseech	besought	besought
Bind	bound	bound
Bleed	bled	bled
Bring	brought	brought
Buy	bought	bought
Catch	caught	caught
Cling	clung	clung
Creep	crept	crept
Deal	dealt	dealt
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Get	got	got
Grind	ground	ground
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Hold	held	held
Keep	kept	kept
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Meet	met	met
Pay	paid	paid
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Say	said	said
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Shine	shone	shone
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Sit	sat	sat
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slid
Sling	slung	slung
Speed	sped	sped
Spend	spent	spent

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. OR PASS. PART.
Stand	stood	stood
Sting	stung	stung
Strike	struck	struck
String	strung	strung
Sweep	swept	swept
Swing	swung	swung
Teach	taught	taught
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Wring	wrung	wrung

III.

Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Bear, *to carry*	bore (bare)	borne
Bear, *to bring forth*	bore (bare)	born
Begin	began	begun
Bid	bade (bid)	bidden (bid)
Bite	bit	bitten (bit)
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke (brake)	broken
Chide	chid	chidden
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave	cleft (clove)	cleft (cloven)
Crow	crew	crowed
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Eat	ate (eat)	eaten (eat)
Fall	fell	fallen
Fly	flew	flown
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grow	grew	grown
Hide	hid	hidden (hid)
Know	knew	known
Lie, *to lie down*	lay	lain
Ride	rode	ridden
Ring	rang	rung
Rise	rose	risen
See	saw	seen

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. OR PASS. PART.
Sew	sewed	sewn
Shake	shook	shaken
Shave	shaved	shaven
Shew	shewed	shewn
Show	showed	shown
Shrink	shrank	shrunk
Sing	sang	sung
Sink	sank	sunk
Slay	slew	slain
Smite	smote	smitten
Speak	spoke (spake)	spoken
Spin	span (spun)	spun
Spit	spat	spitten (spit)
Spring	sprang	sprung
Steal	stole	stolen
Stride	strode	stridden
Strive	strove	striven
Strow	strowed	strown
Swear	swore	sworn
Swim	swam	swum
Take	took	taken
Tear	tore	torn
Throw	threw	thrown
Tread	trode	trodden
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Write	wrote	written

§ (21) The above is a very general classification of the Irregular Verbs. By examining them more minutely it will be seen that a more detailed classification may be given.

The characteristics of each class in the detailed classification are given below, with one or two examples under each; other examples may be supplied from the above lists.

I. Those Verbs which modify the root-vowel, and form the passive or perfect participle in *en*.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. OR PASS. PART.
Arise	arose	arisen
Choose	chose	chosen

II. Those Verbs which modify the root-vowel, but drop *e* from the participial suffix *en*.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. OR PASS. PART.
Blow	blew	blown
Draw	drew	drawn
Fly	flew	flown

III. Those Verbs which modify the root-vowel, and are without any participial suffix.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. OR PASS. PART.
Bind	bound	bound
Ring	rang	rung
Swim	swam	swum

IV. Those Verbs in which the three forms are the same.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. OR PASS. PART.
Burst	burst	burst
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Shed	shed	shed

V. Those Verbs which modify the root-vowel, and form the past tense and the perfect or passive participle by adding *t* or *d*.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. AND PASS. PART.
Creep	crept	crept
Hear	heard	heard
Sleep	slept	slept

VI. Those Verbs which end in *d*, and simply change the *d* into *t* in the past tense and the perfect or passive participle.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. AND PASS. PART.
Bend	bent	bent
Build	built	built
Lend	lent	lent

VII. Those Verbs in which the past tense is *weak*, and the perfect or passive participle *strong*.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. OR PASS. PART.
Show	showed	shown
Strew	strewed	strewn

NOTE.—(1) The grammatical classification of words is based on *function*, not on *form*, as the definitions in any text-books will show. It matters not what the form of a word may be, this does not affect it

as a "Part of Speech." The same word sometimes belongs to two or three parts of speech, according to the *nature of the work* which it performs. Because this classification of Verbs into Regular and Irregular, or Weak and Strong, is based on *form* and not on *function*, it is not, strictly speaking, grammatical, and is regarded by many as objectionable.

(2) "Many Verbs which were originally regular have become irregular by the bad practice of abbreviating or shortening in writing. We are always given to cut our words short, from the desire to make the *pen* correspond with the *tongue*. This has been the case with regard to the words *dealt*, *dwelt* (which were originally *dealed*, *dwelled*), and many others. When the love of contraction came to operate on such Verbs as *to burst* and *to cast*, it found such a clump of consonants already at the end of the words that it could add none. It could not enable the organs of even English speech to pronounce *burst'd*, *cast'd*. It therefore made really short work of it, and dropping the last syllable altogether, wrote *burst* and *cast* in the past tense and the passive or perfect participle."—(*See* Cobbett, § 109.)

§ (22) *Defective Verbs* are those which have not the full complement of moods and tenses. They are,—

May, can, must, shall, will, ought.

To the Defective Verbs some grammarians add those which are conjugated fully, but in which deficiencies are supplied from another root. Such are,—

Be *and* go.

Impersonal Verbs.

Sometimes the pronoun *it* does not appear to stand for any Noun whatever, but is used to point out a *state of things*, or the *cause* of something produced; for instance,—

"*It* freezed hard last night, and *it* was so cold that *it* was with great difficulty the travellers kept on their journey."

Because the Pronoun *it* in these instances does not represent any *person* or *thing*, but a *state of things*, it is called an Impersonal Pronoun; and the Verbs of which it is the subject are called *Impersonal Verbs*.

An Impersonal Verb, then, is a Verb the subject of which is altogether wanting, but the place of which is supplied by the Impersonal Pronoun *it*.

Causative Verbs denote the cause of action.

"I felled the tree," *i.e.*, "I caused it to fall."
"I raised the boy," *i.e.*, "I caused him to rise."

Fell, *raise*, and a few others are Causative Verbs.

Frequentative Verbs denote repetition of action. Such are,—

Glimmer, stagger, sparkle, twinkle, &c.

Verbs of this class frequently end in *er* and *le*.

II.—Remarks on Voice.

§ (23) *Voice* is the form of a Verb which shows whether its subject denotes the doer or the sufferer of the action.

When the subject of the Verb denotes the doer of the action, the Verb is in the *Active Voice*, as,—

"John *killed* James;" "William *ran* away."

When the subject of the Verb denotes the sufferer of the action, the Verb is in the *Passive Voice*, as,—

"John *was killed*;" "Mary *was insulted*."

Every form of a Verb in the Passive Voice is obtained by adding some part of the Verb *to be* to what is called the passive participle of the principal Verb. The Verb *to be* in these constructions is therefore an *Auxiliary of Voice*; and it is the only auxiliary of this kind we have.

Only Transitive Verbs can be in the Passive Voice. Intransitive Verbs are always Active.

Sometimes an Intransitive Verb, followed by a Preposition, acquires the force of a Transitive Verb, in which case it may be used in the Passive Voice, as,—

"I spoke to William."

Spoke in this sentence is intransitive. But in the sentence,—

"William was spoken to on the subject,"

was spoken to is in the Passive Voice.

So also in the sentence,—

"His life was despaired of,"

despaired, followed by the Preposition *of*, is in the Passive Voice, although the Verb *despair* is mostly intransitive.

Sometimes we meet with a form of the Verb in which the subject of it does not denote either the doer or the sufferer of the action. The Verb seems to perform a middle kind of work, as it were, between the Active Voice and the Passive Voice. This is illustrated in the following sentences,—

"The door *opens*;" "The book *reads* well."

In these sentences the subject does not exactly denote the *doer* or the *sufferer* of the action. The Verbs in these sentences are said to be in the *Middle Voice.*

The Verbs *opens* and *reads* are usually Transitive Verbs, but when they occur in the Middle Voice they become Intransitive in *function.*

III.—Remarks on Mood.

§ (24) There are different modes or manners of expressing action. Different forms of the Verb are used in order to express this difference in manner, and these different forms are called *Moods.*

Moods, then, are different forms of the Verb, by means of which the *manner* in which anything is said is indicated.

There are *four* different forms of the Verb for indicating the different manners in which anything can be said, that is to say, there are *four* Moods. These Moods are called respectively the *Infinitive*, the *Indicative*, the *Imperative*, and the *Subjunctive* or *Conditional.*

§ (25) (1) The *Infinitive Mood* is that form of the Verb which is used when what is said is expressed without reference to *time*, *number*, or *person.*

We meet with two forms of the Infinitive,—

(1) The Infinitive which is not preceded by *to.*

(2) The Infinitive which is preceded by *to.*

(*1*) The Infinitive which is not preceded by *to*, is always used after one or other of the following Verbs, which are called *Auxiliaries of Mood*,—

Can, could, may, might, must, should, would.

For instance,—

"I can write;" "I may go;" "You must obey."

In these sentences *write*, *go*, and *obey*, are in the Infinitive Mood.

(*2*) The Infinitive which is preceded by *to*, is used after Principal Verbs, but it may also be used by itself as the subject or object of a sentence, *e.g.*,—

(*a*) "I wish to go home."
(*b*) "To err is human, to forgive divine."
(*c*) "I love to dance."

In (*a*) *wish* is the Principal Verb.
,, (*b*) *To err* and *to forgive* are both subjects.
,, (*c*) *to dance* is the object of the Verb.

After some Principal Verbs the *to*, in the Infinitive of this form, is omitted. These Verbs are,—

Bid, dare, let, make, see, hear, feel, need.

Thus we have,—

"I *bid* him *go* home."
"I *dare do* all that does become a man."
"*Let* me *enjoy* myself."
"I *saw* him *start* yesterday."
&c., &c., &c.

Although the *to* is omitted after these Verbs, it may readily be seen that it is in reality the Infinitive of this form by which they are followed, by putting any of the Verbs in the above sentences in the passive voice, when the particle *to* immediately reappears.

Take the sentence,—

"I saw him *start* yesterday."

In the passive voice this becomes,—

"He was seen to start yesterday by me."

This form of the Infinitive, preceded by the particle *to*, is frequently called the *Supine*, and sometimes also, like the Verbal Noun, the *Gerund*.

§ (26) In Anglo-Saxon these two forms of the Infinitive had different terminations.

(*1*) The Infinitive *without* "*to*" ended in *an*, as,—

Writ-an = to write.

(*2*) The Infinitive *with* "*to*" was the dative case of the Infinitive declined, it being declined just as a Noun, as,—

To writ-anne = to write; (the Infinitive *with* "*to*.")

We see, then, that etymologically the two forms are distinct.

§ (27) Summing up what we have said, we learn,—

(*1*) That the Infinitive *without* "*to*"

(*a*) is used only after *Auxiliaries of Mood*.

(*b*) and that it ended, in Anglo-Saxon, in *an*.

(*2*) That the Infinitive *with* "*to*"

(*a*) is used only after *Principal Verbs*.

(*b*) that it may also form the subject or object of a Verb.

(*c*) and that, in Anglo-Saxon, it was the dative case of the Infinitive declined, and ended in *anne*.

§ (28) As the Infinitive is unlimited by any considerations of tense, number, or person, words having reference to any of these relations should not be used in connection with it. We should not, for instance, speak of the *Present* Infinitive or the *Past* Infinitive. But as the action in itself may be either *Perfect* or *Imperfect*, without reference to time, we may use these words in connection with it.

The Infinitive, then, is either *Imperfect* or *Perfect*. Into every *Perfect* form the auxiliary *have* enters.

If the Verb be *transitive*, some part of the auxiliary of voice *to be* will enter into every form in the passive voice.

We shall now be able to give every form of the Infinitive which can possibly occur, whether the Verb be transitive or intransitive.

These forms are given in the subjoined table, taking *run* as an example of an Intransitive Verb, and *kill* as an example of a Transitive Verb.

I. INTRANSITIVE.

Imperfect: to run.	*Perfect :* to have run.

II. TRANSITIVE.

Active Voice.	*Passive Voice.*
Imperfect: to kill.	*Imperfect:* to be killed.
Perfect : to have killed.	*Perfect :* to have been killed.

Every form of the Infinitive without *to*, is the same as the above with the particle *to* omitted. We thus see that there are *two forms* of the Infinitive-Intransitive, and *four forms* of the Infinitive-Transitive.

PARSING OF THE INFINITIVE.

§ (29) As difficulty is often experienced in Parsing the Infinitive, the following examples are given,—

(*a*) "I can *write* very well."
(*b*) "I could *have done* it easily."
(*c*) "I wish *to go* home."
(*d*) "*To have done* the work would have been creditable."
(*e*) "I love *to dance*."
(*f*) "You must *be punished*."

(*a*) *write* - - -	Verb, intransitive, active, infinitive, imperfect, governed by the Auxiliary *can*
(*b*) *have done* - -	Verb, transitive, active, infinitive, perfect, governed by the Auxiliary *could*
(*c*) *to go* - - -	Verb, intransitive, active, infinitive, imperfect, governed by the Principal Verb *wish*
(*d*) *To have done* -	Supine, or Gerund, transitive, active, perfect, subject of the Verb *would*
(*e*) *to dance* - -	Supine, or Gerund, intransitive, active, imperfect, governed by the Verb *love*
(*f*) *be punished* -	Verb, transitive, passive, infinitive, imperfect, governed by the Auxiliary of Mood *must*

It will be seen that the Infinitive is parsed apart from the Auxiliary of Mood by which it is governed.

§ (30) (2) The *Indicative Mood* is that form of the Verb which is used in stating a fact or asking a question. The word *indicative* comes from a Latin word meaning to *declare* or *assert.*

EXAMPLES.

"Clarence *is come:* false, fleeting, perjured Clarence,
That *stabbed* me in the field by Tewkesbury."

"Who, with living flowers
Of loveliest hue, *spread* garlands at your feet."

§ (31) (3) The *Imperative Mood* is that form of the Verb which is used in giving a command or in making an exhortation, as,—

"Thou *shalt* not *kill;*" "*Help* me to do the work."

§ (32) (4) The *Subjunctive* or *Conditional Mood* is that form of the Verb which is used in making a statement which is dependent on, or subjoined to, another statement.

The sentence containing a Verb in the Subjunctive Mood usually states the *condition* on which something will ensue or take place.

In the following sentences the Verbs in italics are in the Subjunctive Mood,—

"I will not let thee go, except thou *bless* me."
"If he *have* money, why should he spend it?"
"I *would* not go home, if I *were* you."
"If it *were* so, it is a grievous fault."

Sentences containing a Verb in the Subjunctive Mood are very frequently introduced by one or other of the following Conjunctions,—

Except, if, less, that, though, till, unless.

These Conjunctions are not invariably followed by a Verb in the Subjunctive Mood, but they generally are when the sentences which they introduce imply *uncertainty* or *doubt.*

§ (33) Some grammarians recognise a Potential Mood, meaning by it the combinations of the Auxiliaries of Mood with the Verbs to which they are joined. The recognition of this mood, however, is gradually dying out, as there are many objections to it, one of the principal being that it would itself contain indicative and subjunctive forms, and have to be subdivided into these.

For instance, in the sentence,—

"I *could* write well when I was young,"

could is evidently in the Indicative Mood,—a simple statement is made. But in the sentence,—

"I *could* not sleep, if I were left alone,"

could is in the Subjunctive Mood.

Those who recognise a Potential Mood, however, would regard *could* in both instances in this mood.

IV.—Remarks on Tense.

§ (34) *Tense* is the form of a Verb which denotes the time of the performing of an action.

In some grammars we find a very elaborate classification of the Tenses, which is mostly unnecessary and only tends to perplex beginners.

The following simple classification is all that is required for ordinary purposes.

An action may be performed either in present, past, or future time, and, as it may be regarded as imperfect or perfect, in either time, we have,—

Present-	*Imperfect :*	I love, *or* I am loving.
	Perfect :	I have loved.
Past-	*Imperfect :*	I loved, *or* I was loving.
	Perfect :	I had loved.
Future-	*Imperfect :*	I shall love.
	Perfect :	I shall have loved.

Thus we see that there are six Tenses. The Verb *have* or some part of it, enters into every Perfect Tense, and *shall* enters into the Future Tense.

But *shall* is only an Auxiliary of Tense in the 1st person; in the 2nd and 3rd persons *will* takes its place. Thus we have,—

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
1*st Person:*	I shall love.	1*st Person:*	We shall love.
2*nd* ,,	Thou wilt love.	2*nd* ,,	Ye, *or* you will love.
3*rd* ,,	He will love.	3*rd* ,,	They will love.

§ (35) It is important to bear in mind that *shall* is only used to denote futurity in the 1st person; when used in the 2nd or 3rd person it has a different signification, as, for instance, *determination.*

Similarly, *will* is only used to denote futurity in the 2nd and 3rd person; when used in the 1st person it has the same, or somewhat the same signification, as *shall* in the 2nd and 3rd.

The *Past-Imperfect Tense* is frequently called the *Past-Indefinite*, and the *Past-Perfect* the *Plu-Perfect.*

§ (36) Verbs which assist other Verbs to denote Tense are called *Tense Auxiliaries.*

These are, as we have seen,—

Have, shall, *and* will.

But in the sentences,—

"He is gone home;"
"John is returned from Rome;"
"The sun is risen;"

a part of the Verb *to be* is used as an Auxiliary of Tense, forming with the parts of the Principal Verbs with which it is connected the *Perfect Tense.*

It will be noticed that the Verbs to which it is joined as an Auxiliary of Tense are Verbs of *motion*, denoting *going, coming*, &c.; and it is with this class of Verbs alone that it is used as such. A list of these Verbs is given below:—

Rise, fall, go, come, pass, arrive, return, ascend, descend, flee, escape, enter, depart.

It would be quite correct to say,—

"He *has* gone home;"
"John *has* returned from Rome;"
"The sun *has* risen."

There is, however, a slight difference of meaning between the Perfect Tense formed by means of the Verb *to be*, and the Perfect formed by means of the Verb *have*.

Take, for instance, as an example,—

"He is gone home," and "He has gone home."

In the sentence "He has gone home," the leading idea is the *completion of the action:* in the sentence "He is gone home," there is of course the idea of the *completion of the action;* but the participle *gone* when used with the Verb *to be* as an Auxiliary of Tense, describes at the same time the *state of the subject* with greater force, much in the same way as the participle does in the passive voice.

Care must be taken to distinguish between the *Perfect Tense*, of which the Verb *to be* forms a part, and the *Passive Voice*. All the above Verbs are strictly intransitive; and none but Transitive Verbs can be in the passive voice.

V.—Remarks on Participles.

§ (37) A *Participle* is a word which is partly a Verb and partly an Adjective.

Taking *run* and *kill* as examples of Intransitive and Transitive Verbs respectively, the Participles in the following sentences formed from them include every form of the Participle which can possibly occur.

I. INTRANSITIVE.

"John *running* away, was caught in a trap."

"John *having run* away, escaped the danger."

II. TRANSITIVE.

"John *killing* the ox, perspired very much."

"John *having killed* the ox, went home."

"The ox *being killed*, was in great pain."

"The ox *having been killed*, was cut up for food."

From these sentences we see that an *Intransitive* Verb like *run* has two Participles, an *Imperfect*, "running," ending in *ing*, and a *Perfect*, "having run," formed by means of the Imperfect Participle of *have*, and what is generally, though not correctly, called the Past Participle of *run*.

A *Transitive* Verb has four Participles,—

(1) *Imperfect-Active* - killing.
(2) *Perfect-Active* - having killed.
(3) *Imperfect-Passive* - being killed.
(4) *Perfect-Passive* - having been killed.

§ (38) These different forms of the Participle may be arranged as follows,—

I. INTRANSITIVE.

Imperfect—running. *Perfect*—having run.

II. TRANSITIVE.

Active Voice.		*Passive Voice.*	
Imperfect -	killing.	*Imperfect* -	being killed.
Perfect -	having killed.	*Perfect* -	having been killed.

It will have been noticed that all the Participles given above are formed from Verbs, and partake of the nature of a Verb, and also that, like Adjectives, they qualify the Noun with which they are connected. It is on account of this double work which they perform that they are called Participles.

§ (39) A *Participle* formed from a Transitive Verb may be followed by a Noun or Pronoun in the objective case, just as the Transitive Verb itself from which it is formed may.

In the sentence given above,—

"John killing the ox, perspired very much,"

ox is in the objective case, governed by *killing*.

§ (40) Sometimes the Participle is placed before a Noun just like an Adjective, and is then said to qualify the Noun *attributively; e. g.*,—

"A running stream," *i.e.*, "A stream that runs."
"A singing bird," ,, "A bird which sings."
"A barking dog," ,, "A dog which barks."

As has already been said, care must be taken to distinguish between Participles and words which *happen* to have the form of Participles, as, for instance, the Verbal Nouns and some Adjectives.

In the phrase,—

"A walking-stick,"

the word *walking* is simply an Adjective, qualifying *stick;* it does not denote *a stick that walks;* and in this respect, although it has the participle form, differs in its nature from the words *running, singing,* and *barking,* given above, and is not a Participle.

§ (41) Participles, like Verbs in the infinitive mood, are unlimited by any considerations of tense, number, or person. It is therefore, strictly speaking, not correct to make use of words relating to tense in designating them. We ought not to speak of Present Participles and Past Participles. The terms Imperfect and Perfect should be used, for the same reason as they are used with the infinitive (*see* § 28).

§ (42) The Participles ending in *ed*, as *killed*, and the corresponding Participles formed from *Strong* Verbs, as *drawn* from *draw*, are frequently spoken of as *Perfect* or

Passive Participles. Now we know that into every Passive Participle must enter a part of the Verb *to be*, and that into every Perfect Participle must enter a part of the Verb *have*. When, therefore, it is said that a Participle like the above is the Perfect or Passive Participle, it must be borne in mind that it is meant that it simply enters into the forms for the passive voice, or that it forms part of the perfect participle, as the case may be.

VI.—Remarks on Conjugation.

§ (43) Voice, mood, and tense have now been considered. Number and person will be dealt with under the head of Syntax.

A Verb may appear in a great variety of forms when considered in connection with each of the above relations.

In order to obtain every possible form of a Verb, we must express all the forms it assumes for voice, mood, tense, number, and person.

This joining of the Simple Verb to its various relations of voice, mood, &c., is called *Conjugation*.

§ (44) Principal Verbs may be conjugated in four different ways; so that there are *four Conjugations*.

These Conjugations are,—

(1) *The Simple* - - I strike.
Thou strikest.
&c., &c.

(2) *The Emphatic* - Do strike.

(3) *The Progressive*: I am striking.
Thou art striking.
&c., &c.

(4) *The Paulo-Post*: I am about to strike.
Thou art about to strike.
&c., &c.

The above examples will serve to show the nature of each conjugation.

Conjugation in English differs, in one respect, from conjugation in other languages. Take, for instance, the Latin. In Latin there are four conjugations, but a Verb belongs to only one of these conjugations; whereas, in English a Verb may be conjugated in four different ways.

VII.—Remarks on Individual Verbs.

§ (45) *Ought.*—This Verb, which is always followed by the supine or gerund, that is, the infinitive with *to*, is properly a past tense of the Verb *owe*, which in former times meant to *own* or *possess*. Morris says, "That *owe* itself is the past of an infinitive *eigan*, to labour, work; whence *owe* originally signified *I have worked, I have earned;* hence (*a*) "I possess,—have;" (*b*) "I have it as a duty,—I ought." The word *ought* has now lost its original meaning of *to own, to possess*, and has become established in our language as a separate Verb denoting moral obligation. "What one *ought* to do" is "What *is due* from one," or "What one *should* do." It must be borne in mind that the regular *past-imperfect* of *owe*, with its present meaning (*to owe money*, for instance) is *owed;* and this Verb can be conjugated fully in all the moods and tenses.

Went.—The past-imperfect of the Verb *to go*, is derived from *wend*, in *to wend one's way*.

Do.—This Verb is used in two ways, as a Principal Verb and as an Auxiliary. As an Auxiliary, it is generally called the *Auxiliary of Emphasis*, and is followed by the infinitive without *to*, being mostly used in negative and interrogative sentences, as, "I *do* not know what you want;" "*Do* you hear what I say?" As a Principal Verb, it has two significations,—(1) *to act;* (2) *to thrive, avail*, as in the sentences,—(1) "I *do* my work well;" (2) "How do you *do?*" "That will *do;*" "This *will do* very well." With this latter meaning the Verb is derived from the Anglo-Saxon *dugan*, to fare, to prosper.

Shall—Originally meant *to owe*. *Should* is the past tense of this Verb, and thus is accounted for the connection in meaning between *should* and *ought*.

Are.—The present tense, plural, of the Verb *to be*, was first introduced into England by the Danes. It is of Scandinavian origin. In some provincial dialects—in Cornwall and Devon, for instance—*be* is now very frequently used in the plural, as "Where be you going?"

Dare.—This Verb takes the infinitive *without* "*to*" as a direct object, but the infinitive *with* "*to*" as an indirect object, *e.g.*,—

"I dare *do* all that doth become a man" (direct);

"I dare you *to do* it" (indirect).

Meseems and *methinks* = *it seems to me*,—and these words should be substituted in parsing. These forms were at one time commonly used, but they are now almost obsolete. *Seems* and *thinks* are here strictly Impersonal Verbs.

Quoth.—From the Anglo-Saxon *cwethan*, to say; is now almost obsolete.

To wit.—This defective Verb is now almost obsolete. It means *to know*. *Present Tense*, I wot; *Past-Imperfect*, I wist. Shakespeare uses a participle *wotting;* but as the Anglo-Saxon form is *witende*, and the Old English *wittande*, this form, *wotting*, can scarcely be regarded as a legitimate formation.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I.—Remarks on the Classes of Adjectives.

§ (46) Pupils have frequently considerable difficulty in determining whether or not a word is an Adjective, because they are perplexed by the different definitions of the term "Adjective" which are given in different text-books. Some grammarians recognise as Adjectives what others would regard as Pronouns. Everything depends upon the definition of the term. Having once defined an Adjective, we must be careful to see that every word which we call an Adjective comes within the scope of our definition.

A definition often given is, "An Adjective is a word which qualifies a Noun." This definition is objectionable, because a Noun is a word which can not be said to have any quality; it is that for which the Noun stands which possesses the quality. The error of confounding a word with what the word denotes is very prevalent, and should be carefully guarded against. The different meanings given to the word *qualify* are perplexing. Sometimes it is used in the sense of *denoting a quality*, and sometimes in the wider sense of *affecting the meaning of the Noun*. If the word be used at all, it should be clearly understood what it is intended to signify.

§ (47) An Adjective is a word added to a Noun, to denote some quality or fact connected in thought with that for which the Noun stands.

The following is a simple classification of the Adjectives.

I. *Proper Adjectives*, such as,—

English, French, Spanish.

II. *Adjectives of Quality*, as,—

Wise, good, sober, religious.

III. *Numeral Adjectives*, including,—

(*a*) *Definite Numerals*,—

(1) *Cardinal:* one, two, three, four, &c.

(2) *Ordinal:* first, second, third, fourth, &c.

(*b*) *Indefinite Numerals*, as,—several, few, many, some, all, both, &c.

(*c*) *Distributive Numerals*, as,—each, every, either, neither.

IV. *Demonstrative Adjectives*, as,—

The, this, that, these, those, *and* yon.

§ (48) Remarks on *Individual Adjectives*.

Each and *either*.—*Either* relates to *one of two*. The early form of the comparative suffix was *ter* or *ther;* it signified *one of two*, and is still to be found in a few words which denote *quality*, such as *whether, neither, farther*.

Each has reference to any number of objects, but when compounded with *other*, in *each other*, it relates to any number of objects taken *two together*. In *other* there is a trace of the comparative suffix.

Each and *every*.—Both these words have reference to a collection of individuals. The prominent idea when *each* is used is the *multitude of the units*, and when *every* is used the prominent idea is the *unity of the multitude*.

All and *several*.—Both these words relate to a number of objects; but *all* relates to them taken *collectively*, whereas *several* involves the idea of *separation*. This meaning of *several* is clearly seen in legal language, *e.g.*, "A joint and *several* estate," that is, *separate estate*.

II.—Remarks on the Degrees of Comparison.

§ (49) For definitions of the degrees of comparison, see "Hughes's Practical Grammar," also see the same for a list of the Adjectives compared irregularly.

Remarks on *Anomalous forms*.

Better is formed from the Anglo-Saxon *bet*, meaning good. The Anglo-Saxon comparative suffix was *re*, which has now become *er*.

Best is contracted from the Anglo-Saxon *bet-est*, *bet-st*.

Worse.—The termination *se* in this word was an older form of the comparative termination *re*. *Weor* was the Anglo-Saxon word for *bad*.

Rather is the comparative of *rathe*, meaning *early*, which is now obsolete.

Farther is the comparative of *far*. The *th* has crept into the word from a false analogy with *further*, the comparative of *forth*, which is an Adverb.

Much, *more*, *most*, refer to *quantity*.

Many, *more*, *most*, refer to *number*.

The root of these words is *mag*. *Mo-re* is the Anglo-Saxon *ma-re* (mag-re), and *mo-st* the Anglo-Saxon *mæst* (mag-est).

Many has no connection with the root *mag*, it comes from the Anglo-Saxon *man-ig*.

Last,—a contraction of *lat-est:* compare *bet-est.*

Nigh, near, next. } The correct forms are *nigh, near,*
Near, nearer, nearest. } *next.* So we see that *nearer* is, in reality, a double comparative, a comparative formed from a comparative.

Lesser is formed from the comparative form *less,* and is, in reality, a double comparative.

Elder and *eldest* are now only used with reference to *living things.* The full comparative force of *elder* is lost: the word is never followed by *than,* which follows every other comparative.

Former.—In Anglo-Saxon there were two superlative terminations, *ema,* and *est* or *ost.* The *m* in *former* is the superlative termination; and, in Old English, *forma* signified *first;* the word was the superlative of the root *fore.* We see, then, that *former* is a comparative formed from a superlative.

Foremost.—The suffix *most* in this word is not the ordinary Adjective *most,* it is compounded from the two superlative terminations given above, namely, *ema* and *est* or *ost.* In reality, then, there are two superlative terminations in *foremost,* and the word is therefore a double superlative.

Other words in which this double superlative is found, are,—

Utmost, innermost, outermost, hindmost, &c.

In *inn-er-m-ost, out-er-m-ost,* and *utt-er-m-ost* a double superlative is formed from a comparative.

Distinction between "farther" and "further."

Farther, as we have already said, is the comparative of *far;* it is strictly an Adjective, and is applied to the more distant of two objects, as,—

"Lancaster is *farther* from London than Manchester."

Further, the comparative of *forth,* denotes movement in advance, as,—

"The ship moves *further* on."

THE ADVERB.

I.—Remarks on the Classes of Adverbs.

§ (50) Adverbs are variously classified.

(*a*) *Generally* according to the ideas of time, place, manner, degree, &c., which they indicate.

(*b*) *Sometimes* according to the nature of their work in the construction of sentences.

(1) *Simple.*—Those which simply modify the meaning of some other word.

(2) *Relative* or *Connective.*—Those which, in addition to modifying the meaning of some other word, join and relate one sentence to another.

Relative Adverbs resemble, in their nature, to some extent, Relative Pronouns. A word bearing the same sort of relation to Adverbs of this class as the antecedent does to the Relative Pronoun, may always be expressed, although it is generally understood, as,—

"I shall be glad to see you *when* you can call upon me;"

that is,—

"I shall be glad to see you *then* (at the time) *when* you can call upon me."

Other Adverbs of this class, are,—

Whenever, where, while, whither, whence, wherein, whereby, &c.

§ (51) Although an *Adverb* is frequently defined to be *a word which modifies a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb*, it will be found that often the Adverb does not modify the meaning of any individual word, but gives to the sentence which it introduces an adverbial force, which sentence modifies the meaning of the Verb in the sentence to which it is subjoined, or on which it is dependent, as,—

"I hate you *because* you do not tell the truth."

In this sentence, *because* would be regarded by many as a Conjunction, but regarding it as a Relative Adverb it does not modify any individual word, but gives the sentence

which it introduces an adverbial force, making it an adverbial sentence, which modifies the Verb *hate* in the principal sentence.

It will be found also that an Adverb may modify the meaning of other individual words in addition to those belonging to the classes mentioned in the above definition.

For instance, in the sentence,—

"His house is immediately over mine;"

over is a Preposition, and is modified by the Adverb *immediately*. Similarly, *far* in the phrase,—

"Far from the madding crowd's ignoble strife,"

modifies the Preposition *from*.

Some grammarians even maintain that Adverbs modify Nouns and Pronouns, as in the sentences,—

"I shall dismiss all attempts to please, while I study *only instruction*" (Noun).

"*Yours* most *affectionately*" (Pronoun).

"*He only* was saved" (Pronoun).

(*See* "The Elements of the English Language," by Adams, § 387).

§ (52) The proper use of the Adverbs,—

"Here, hither, hence; where, whither, whence; there, thither, thence"

is often neglected. For instance, instead of saying,

"Whence do you come?"

the more ungainly expression,—

"Where do you come from?"

is mostly used.

The proper use of these Adverbs and their meanings will be seen from the following,—

Here, means "*in this* place;" *hither*, "*to this* place;" *hence*, "*from this* place."
Where, „ "*in what* place;" *whither*, "*to what* place;" *whence* "*from what* place."
There, „ "*in that* place;" *thither*, "*to that* place;" *thence* "*from that* place."

The Adverbs *hither*, *hence*, *thither*, *thence*, *whither*, *whence*, are Adverbs of Direction.

The Adverbs, *yes* and *yea*, are usually called *Adverbs of Affirmation; no, nay*, and *not* are usually called *Adverbs of Negation.*

Whereby, wherein, and similar Adverbs are sometimes called Pronominal Adverbs, being equivalent to a Preposition and a Pronoun,—

Whereby = by which.
Wherein = in which.

II.—Remarks on Peculiar Constructions.

§ (53) (1) Some of the most common-place expressions, such as,—"Go home;" "The loaf weighs six pounds;" "The river is sixty feet wide" present considerable difficulty to young students in parsing.

The difficult words in the above sentences are *home, pounds*, and *feet.*

Now it is evident that each of these words has an adverbial force. *Home* denotes *place where; six pounds* denotes *how heavy* the loaf weighs; and *sixty feet* denotes *how wide* the river is. The Verbs in each of the sentences are intransitive, and, therefore, although *home* and *pounds* seem to occupy the place of objects, they are not in the objective case governed by the Verbs which they follow. These words, as we have already said, have an adverbial force; but as they are, at the same time, evidently Nouns, and seem to occupy the place of objects, they are parsed as *adverbial objects*, limiting the Verbs which they follow, thus,—

home - Noun common, neuter, singular, 3rd, adverbial object, limiting *go.*

pounds - Noun common, neuter, plural, 3rd, abverbial object, limiting *weighs.*

Feet, in the sentence above given, is parsed exactly in the same way:—

feet - Noun common, neuter, plural, 3rd, adverbial object, limiting *is wide.*

Similarly in the sentences, "John swam six miles;" "I was travelling six months;" *miles* and *months* are abverbial objects, limiting the Verbs they follow.

From the above examples we see that it is Verbs denoting *time, space, weight, measurement, &c.*, which take abverbial objects after them.

In the sentence, "The river is sixty feet wide," the assertion which is made is, that *the river is wide.* How wide? *sixty feet:* so that the words *sixty feet* limit *is wide.*

This sentence would be analysed as follows :—

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	OBJECT.	EXTENSION.
The river	is wide	.....	sixty feet.

(2) The Adverb *there* in its usual sense has reference to *place*, but in the sentences, "There was, &c.;" "There is, &c." it has a different meaning. When we say, "There are many men who do not know their letters," we mean that "Many men are *in existence* who do not know their letters."

Again, "There never was anything so beautiful as that flower," means that "Anything so beautiful as that flower *never existed*," or "never *was in being*."

The word would be parsed as an "Adverb, equivalent to *in existence*, forming the predicate with the Verb *was*, a Verb of incomplete predication."

(3) In such phrases as, "*The* more *the* merrier," *the* is not the same word as the Article *the;* it is an *Adverb of Degree.* The phrase might be rendered, "*By how much* more, *by so much the* merrier."

(4) *Passing*, in such sentences as, "It is *passing* strange," is equivalent in meaning to *beyond:* "It is *beyond* what is strange." Although *passing* is here an *Adverb*, it was originally a participle; and in such a construction would govern the Noun sentence, "What is strange," just as the Preposition *beyond* does when substituted for it.

Similar remarks may be made respecting *exceeding*, in such phrases as "*Exceeding* great;" "*Exceeding* glad."

III.—Remarks on Comparison.

§ (54) Adverbs, as a rule, have no inflection; in a few instances, however, Adverbs are, like Adjectives, inflected for comparison, thus,—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Soon	soon-er	soon-est
Often	often-er	often-est

Irregularly,—

Badly *or* ill	worse	worst
Well	better	best
Little	less	least
Much	more	most

Other Adverbs are compared, like Adjectives, by prefixing *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*.

THE PRONOUN.

Remarks on certain Classes of Pronouns.

§ (55) *Personal Pronouns* are simple substitutes for the names of persons or things.

Pronouns of this class are of two kinds, *Simple* and *Compound*. The *Simple Personal Pronouns* are, *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, with their different forms for *number* and *case*. The *Compound Personal Pronouns* are formed from the *Simple* by the addition of the particles *self*, plural *selves*, and *own*.

Self is added to the *possessive case* of Pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person, and to the *objective case* of Pronouns of the 3rd person.

Own is added to the possessive case of Pronouns of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd person.

The force of these particles when added to the Simple Pronouns is to strengthen their meaning, or make them emphatic.

Pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person have no changes of form to express *gender*, neither have the Pronouns of the 3rd person plural; but those of the 3rd person singular have changes for that purpose.

§ (56) In the declension of the Personal Pronoun, *thou* is always given as the *2nd person singular*, but custom has set aside the rules of grammar in this case; and though we, in particular cases, still make use of *thou* and *thee*, we generally make use of *you* instead of either of them. According to ancient rule and custom, this is not correct; but what a whole people adopts, and universally practises, must, in such cases, be deemed correct, and to be a superseding of ancient rule and custom.

You, although used in addressing one individual, always takes a Verb in the *plural* number. It was first used as a singular in the 13th century.

Ye, which is now rarely used except in poetry, is derived from the Anglo-Saxon *ge*, which was the nominative form. By old English writers this was always used as the *nominative*, and *you* as the *accusative*, *e.g.*,—

"I know you not, whence ye are" (Bible).

Later writers, however, confused the two, and we find them used indiscriminately in the nominative and objective.

§ (57) *Relative Pronouns*, in addition to being substitutes for the names of persons or things, may also refer to Pronouns which have been already used, and they *relate* sentences.

The Pronouns belonging to this class are,—

Who, *which*, *that*, and *what*,

with the compounds of the two former and *what* with *ever*; and sometimes *as* and *but*.

Who is used with reference to persons, *which* and *that* with reference to irrational creatures and things. This application of the relative *which* solely to irrational creatures is, however, of modern date, for in the Lord's Prayer we say, "Our Father, *which* art in heaven." In the American Liturgy this error has been corrected, and they say "Our Father, *who* art in heaven."

The force of *ever*, when added to Pronouns of this class, is to give them a wider signification.

Relative Pronouns are, in reality, equivalent to a Conjunction and a Personal Pronoun together. If there were no Pronouns of this class, instead of saying,—

"The sun is bright, *which* shines on the earth;"

we should have to say,—

"The sun is bright, *and it* shines on the earth."

§ (58) *What* is frequently regarded as a Compound Relative equivalent to *that which*. In the sentence "I do not know what you want," for instance, *what*, in parsing, would by many be broken up into *that which*, and *that* would be parsed as objective case, governed by *do know*, and *which* as objective case, governed by *want*. There is not the slightest need, however, for resorting to this process. The object of *do know* is not any individual word, but the whole sentence *what you want*, which is a Noun sentence, and *what* is objective case, governed by *want*. *What* was originally used as a simple relative, with its antecedent expressed—*that what*,—but now the antecedent is included in the relative, and the word is thus equivalent to, or may include,—

(*a*) A nominative and an objective.
(*b*) An objective and a nominative.
(*c*) Two nominatives.
(*d*) Two objectives.

This will be seen from the following sentences,—

(1) "I am what you say."

Here, *what* gives the whole sentence which it introduces the force of a nominative; it is a Noun sentence, completing *am*, a Verb of incomplete predication, and if a Noun were substituted for this sentence, it would be nominative case, after *am*. *What* is itself objective case governed by *say*.

(2) "I heard what he was" (objective and nominative).
(3) "I am what I am" (two nominatives).
(4) "I heard what you said" (two objectives).

In (2) *what he was* is a Noun sentence, after *heard;* and *what* is nominative case, after *was*.

In (3) *what I am* is a Noun sentence, forming with the first *am* the predicate; and *what* is nominative case, after *am* in the sentence which it introduces.

In (4) *what you said* is a Noun sentence, after *heard;* and *what* is objective case, governed by *said.*

§ (59) *But* and *as.*

In the passage,—

> "There breathes not clansman of thy line
> *But* would have given his life for mine;"

and in the sentence,—

> "There is none *but* will agree with me;"

but is a relative pronoun.

In the first example it is nominative case, subject of *would;* and in the second it is nominative case, subject of *will agree.*

As a relative, *but* is equivalent to the relative *who* and the negative *not.*

> "*But* would have given" = "*Who* would *not* have given."
> "*But* will agree" = "*Who* will *not* agree."

As, as a relative pronoun, generally follows some demonstrative word, as *same* or *such;* generally the latter. For instance,—

> "I do not approve of such *as* are in the habit of misconducting themselves."

Here, *as* is a relative pronoun, relating to "*such,*" or "such *people,*" and is nominative case, subject of *are.*

§ (60) *Possessive Pronouns* are Pronouns which denote possession, but which are never in the possessive case.

The true Possessive Pronouns are,—

Ours, yours, hers, theirs.

Some regard these forms as personal pronouns in the possessive case, but they are never used as such; they are never followed by Nouns denoting what is possessed. The forms for the possessive case are,—

Our, your, her, their.

The difference between a personal pronoun in the possessive case and a possessive pronoun is, that the former must always be followed by a Noun which it limits, while the latter is never followed by a Noun, is never in the possessive case, but may be either in the nominative or objective case.

Thus in the sentence,—

"This is *our* house,"

our is a personal pronoun in the possessive case, limiting *house.* But in the sentence,—

"This house is *ours*,"

ours is a possessive pronoun, nominative case after *is.*

In the sentence,—

"If you watch *your* house, I will watch *ours*,"

your is a personal pronoun, possessive case, limiting *house;* *ours* is a possessive pronoun, objective case, governed by *will watch.*

There are other Pronouns, again, which are sometimes regarded as possessives, but which are, in reality, personal pronouns in the possessive case, followed by some Noun *understood.* For instance,—

"This hat is *his*," *i.e.*, "is *his hat.*"

If *his* in this sentence were a possessive pronoun, it would be nominative case after *is.*

Mine and *thine* were, at one time, commonly used as Pronouns in the possessive case, but they have now ceased to be used as such, excepting in the language of poetry, *my* and *thy* being the common forms for that case; and they are mostly used as possessives. For instance,—

"This hat is *mine.*"

Here *mine* is nominative case after *is.*

§ (61) *Demonstrative Pronouns* are those which point out the position of the objects to which they refer.

The Pronouns belonging to this class are,—

This, that, *with their plurals*, these *and* those; such, yon, yonder; *and to these are sometimes added what are generally called the Personal Pronouns of the 3rd person*, he, she, it, they.

This refers to the nearer of two objects; *that* to the more distant of the two. When two things which have been already mentioned are referred to, *this* refers to the thing last mentioned, *that* to the thing first mentioned, as,—

"*Body* and *soul* must part:
This wings its way to its eternal home,
That to the dark and noisome grave."

Here, *this* refers to *soul*, the thing last mentioned; *that* to *body*, the thing first mentioned.

So, also,—

"Virtue and vice offer themselves for your choice; *this* leads to misery, *that* to happiness."

When *this* and *that* are followed by a Nóun, they are frequently called *Demonstrative Adjective Pronouns;* and in such cases they should be parsed as limiting the Nouns which follow them, as in the sentences,—

"*This* man is untruthful;" "*That* boy is frequently in the wrong."

These Pronouns are only used to stand for persons, &c., as subjects of the Verb *to be*, and other *Copulative Verbs*, as,—

"*This* is my brother;" "*That* is my cousin;" "*That* is a strange thing;" "*This* seems very strange."

In the plural this restriction does not apply. We find in the Bible,—

"Upon *those* did Solomon levy tribute;" "These (= these persons) are not drunken, as ye suppose."

Such expressions as the latter, however, are now rarely made use of.

This is usually called the *Proximate* Demonstrative.
That „ „ *Remote* „

§ (62) *Such* is called the Demonstrative of Comparison, the idea of comparison always existing in the mind when it is used.

It is frequently followed by *as* and *that*, *e.g.*,—

"*Such* news *as* this is very depressing;"

"He is *such* a coward *that* I do not care for his company."

Same is frequently regarded as a demonstrative, and as such is called the *Demonstrative of Identity.*

"Republican spirit can only be combated by a spirit of *the same* nature."

§ (63) *Reciprocal Pronouns* are those which express reciprocity of feeling or action. They are,—

Each other *and* one another;

as,—

"They love *each other;*" "They love *one another;*"

strictly speaking, *each other* has reference to *two; one another*, to *any number above two.*

In the above sentences *each* is nominative to *love*, standing in the attributive relation to *they*, the sense of which it distributes; *other* is in the objective case, governed by *love; one* is nominative to *love*, and *another* objective, governed by *love.* The sentences may be rendered,—

"They each love the other;" "They one love the other."

We frequently make use of the phrases,—

"To each other;" "After each other;" "To one another;" &c.

In Old English such phrases were always rendered,—

"Each to other;" "Each after other;" "One to another."

§ (64) The *Indefinite Pronouns* are,—

One, any, ought, nought, some, other.

One is indefinite in such sentences as,—

"One hardly knows what to do;"

in which the speaker refers to himself in an indefinite manner so as not to bring himself too prominently to the front. It has a possessive case, *one's.*

Any is derived from the Anglo-Saxon *ænig*. It is the numeral *one* with a diminutive suffix, *ig* or *y*. When used with a singular Noun, *any* often denotes *quantity*; with a plural Noun it always refers to *number*, as,—

"The horses do not want *any* hay to-day" (quantity).
"Have you *any* apples?" (number).

Aught is derived from the Anglo-Saxon *awiht*. The English *whit*, a thing, is the same as the Anglo-Saxon *wiht*; so that *aught* means *anything*.

Naught is the negative *ne* and *aught* and = *not anything*.

Some is sometimes a Pronoun, sometimes an Adjective, as,—

"*Some* fell by the way-side" (Pronoun).
"I have *some* money" (Adjective).

In the *singular* "*some*" usually donotes *quantity*.
,, *plural* ,, ,, ,, *number*.
as,—

"*Some* of his skill he taught to me" (quantity).
"*Some* wish to be rich, for whom it were better a great deal to be poor" (number). (See Adams, § 264.)

Other, when used as a Substantive, is declined as a Noun,—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nominative - -	other - -	others.
Possessive - -	other's - -	others'.
Objective - -	other - -	others.

§ (65) The *Distributive Pronouns* are,—

Each, every, either, neither.

They are called *distributive* because they *distribute* the *sense* or *meaning* of the things to which they refer.

Each refers to a number of individuals viewed *separately*.
Every ,, ,, ,, *collectively*.
Either and *neither* relate to *one of two*. They are always in the singular number. In old writers, however, we sometimes find them used in the plural, *e.g.*,—

"When *neither* are alive."—*Shakespeare*.

Either was formerly often used with the meaning of *both*, but it is seldom so used now, *e.g.*,—

"On *either* bank the daisies grew."

Here, *either* means *both*,—"On *both* banks."

§ (66) The *Impersonal Pronoun "it"* has already been referred to (*see* § 22).

This Pronoun is found in *methinks, meseems*, which, as has already been said, are *Impersonal Verbs*; = "*it seems to me.*"

THE PREPOSITION.

I.—General remarks.

§ (67) Prepositions are used to a greater extent in modern than in ancient English. In ancient English the language was much more inflected than it is now, but gradually most of the case-endings of the Nouns were lost, and in many instances the place of these was supplied by Prepositions.

Prepositions show the relation between,—

(*a*) *Two Nouns.*

"*Men* of *wisdom* are useful."

(*b*) *A Verb and a Noun.*

"He *fell* into the *pond.*"

(*c*) *An Adjective and a Noun.*

"Bread is *good* for *food.*"

(*d*) *A Verb and a Pronoun.*

"I *went* with *him* to London."

A Preposition may also govern what is frequently called a *participial phrase.*

"Mercy to him that shows it, is the rule
By which Heaven moves in *pardoning guilty man.*"

In such sentences as,—

"After that I arrived, I was well received,"

after is, in reality, a Preposition, governing the Noun sentence "that I arrived;" for "that I arrived" is

equivalent in meaning to "my arrival;" and in "after my arrival," *arrival* would be in the objective case, governed by *after*.

Similarly in such sentences as,—

"*Before* we go home, let us call at the castle;"

before governs the Noun sentence "we go home;" the *that* is omitted, but we find in old writings *that* expressed in such constructions, as,—

"*Before that* certain came from James;"
"*After that* I was turned, I repented."

In old writings we very frequently find the infinitive preceded by a Preposition in such expressions as, "For to die;" "From to die;" &c., *e.g.*,—

"Could save the son of Thetis *from to die*."—*Spenser*.

This use of a Preposition before the infinitive still lingers in some dialects in the west of England, in such expressions as, "He was going *for to strike*," &c.

Originally, Prepositions were used to express relations of *place;* they are now, however, used to express a variety of relations, such as *time*, *cause*, *reason*, *purpose*, *&c.*

II.—Remarks on Individual Words and forms.

§ (68) Some Prepositions of almost similar form are often misused, on account of the difference in meaning not being clearly understood.

Beside and *besides*.—Both these words are Prepositions, but *beside* has reference to *place*, as, "The house stood *beside* the lake;" whilst *besides* means *in addition to*, as in the sentence, "There was no one present *besides* me." The mistake of using *besides* for *beside* is often made in ordinary conversation.

Of and *off* are both Prepositions; the latter is sometimes also an Adverb. They are Prepositions in "The only son

of his mother;" "The book fell *off* the table." In the sentence, "He was turned *off* at a moment's notice," *off* is an Adverb.

The following words are generally regarded as Prepositions, but, strictly speaking, they are not such:—

Concerning, considering, despite, during, excepting, pending, respecting, regarding, notwithstanding.

All the above, with the exception of *despite*, are, in reality, participles.

Some of them are active participles, used in place of passive participles, which qualify the Nouns with which they are connected, the two together forming an absolute phrase. For instance,—

"Considering his conduct, he is not entitled to our thanks,"

In this sentence, *Considering his conduct* is equivalent to *His conduct considered*, in which *considered* is a participle in the passive voice, qualifying *conduct;* and *conduct* is in the Nominative absolute.

Again, in the sentence,—

"Notwithstanding his conduct, I can scarcely reproach him,"

Notwithstanding his conduct is equivalent to *His conduct notwithstanding*, in which *notwithstanding* is a participle qualifying *conduct*, and *conduct* is in the nominative absolute.

Despite is properly used as a Noun where we generally make use of *spite; in spite of* = *in despite of.*

Except is a preposition of classical origin, corresponding to *out-take*, *e.g.*,—

"All *out-take* the nightingale;"

that is,

"All, *except* the nightingale."

In *out-take* we see the participial connection,—

"All the nightingale *out-taken* (*or taken out*)."

§ (69) *Anent* is a Preposition meaning *opposite, concerning.* A provincial form of this in the North of England is *anenst*, as in,—

"The house is just *anenst* the church,"

that is, *just opposite* the church.

Some Prepositions have two forms, a simple form, and another formed from this by the addition of *st.* For instance,—

Among, amongst; amid, amidst.

The force of this suffix is probably to intensify the meaning of the simple word. Thus,—

Amid = in the middle of; amidst = in the very middle of.

We frequently hear such expressions as, "I am *a* hunting," "I am *a* coming," in provincial dialects. The *a* introduced into these expressions is most probably the Preposition *at.* This is a vulgar and redundant manner of speaking, but, as is stated above, it is in use.—(*See* Cobbett, § 126.)

The *o'* with the mark of elision in *o'clock*, means *of*, or *of the*, or *on*, or *on the;* to say *three o'clock* is the same as to say "three *of the* clock," or "three *according to the* clock," or "three *on the* clock."

THE CONJUNCTION.

I.—Remarks on the Classes of Conjunctions.

§ (70) Mason remarks, "Most grammarians distribute Conjunctions into *copulative* and *disjunctive* conjunctions. A *copulative conjunction* is a *joining word which couples together.* A *disjunctive conjunction* is a *joining word which disjoins.* A person need be very keen-sighted to see the sense or utility of this classification."

For the complete classification of Conjunctions as above, with definitions of each class, *see* Morrell.

Cobbett remarks that "Copulative Conjunctions express *an union* in the actions, or states of being, expressed by the Verb, as, 'You *and* I talk.' Disjunctive Conjunctions express *disunion*, as, 'You talk, *but* I act.'"

§(71) The simplest classification of Conjunctions is into,—

I. Co-ordinate. II. Subordinate.

Co-ordinate Conjunctions are those which join co-ordinate sentences, that is, sentences which are of equal importance when considered in their relation to each other.

The Co-ordinate Conjunctions are,—

And, but, or, nor, either, neither.

With, when equivalent to *along with*, *together with*, *in company with*, seems to have the force of a Conjunction, having almost the same meaning as *and;* and when with this meaning it joins two singular Nouns, they require to be followed by a Verb in the plural, *e.g.*,—

"The tyrant, with the spy, *have* brought Peter to the block."

Subordinate Conjunctions are those which join subordinate to principal sentences.

The Subordinate Conjunctions are,—

That, lest, for, since, because, if, than, though, although, unless, *and sometimes* as *and* but.

In, "*As* it is desirable that I should go, I will go," *as* is a subordinate conjunction, equivalent in meaning to *since* or *because.*

In, "I never go out *but* I am unfortunate," *but* is a subordinate conjunction.

§(72) Some Conjunctions are used in pairs in such constructions where the use of the one necessitates the use of the other; such are,—

Either–or; neither–nor; whether–or; both–and; though–yet; although–yet; so–as; not only–but; not only–but also.

One of each pair of Conjunctions is placed before each of the connected sentences.

These are called *Correlative Conjunctions.*

II.—Remarks on Individual Words.

§ (73) *Than* and *as*. After *than* and *as*, the error of putting the objective for the nominative is frequently committed; as,—

> "John was very rich, but Peter was richer than *him;* and, at the same time, as learned as *him*, or any of his family."

It ought to be "richer than *he;* as learned as *he;*" for the full meaning here is, "richer than *he (was rich);*" "as learned as *he (was learned).*" But it does not always happen that the nominative comes after *than* or *as*.

> "I love you more than *him;*" "I give you more than *him;*" "I love you as well as *him;*"

that is to say,—

> "I love you more than *I love him;*" "I give you more than *I give him;*" "I love you as well as *I love him.*"

Take away *him* and put *he*, in each of these cases, and the grammar is just as good, only the *meaning is quite different.*

> "I love you as well as *him;*"

means that,—

> "I love you as well as *I love him;*"

but,—

> "I love you as well as *he;*"

means that,—

> "I love you as well as *he loves you.*"

Thus we see, that by supplying the ellipsis after these Conjunctions, the meaning is made clear, and we shall never be at a loss in determining whether the nominative or objective form is to be used.

Some writers make *than* a Preposition, as in,—

> "A man *than* whom I know not a wiser."

The word, however, is very rarely used in this way, and is scarcely worth taking into consideration as a Preposition.

Mason regards *than* as a *Conjunctive Adverb*, not as a *Conjunction*, and says "*than* is only a variety of the word *then*," which is used by the older writers. Originally,—

"John is taller than James,"

meant,—

"John is taller, *then* (i.e., *next*, or *in an inferior degree*) James."

That. Adams observes "That the demonstrative pronoun *that* is often used in apposition to a sentence forming the subject or object of a Verb, to fix the attention more strongly upon the collective idea contained in the sentence," as,—

"Experience tells me *that* (my past enjoyments have brought no real felicity)."

"*That* (a human being cannot be justly held and used as property) is apparent from the very nature of property."

It need scarcely be added that the word *that* in such sentences is almost invariably regarded as a Conjunction.

THE INTERJECTION.

§ (74) An *Interjection* is a word which stands apart from the construction of a sentence, and is thrown in merely to express sudden thought or emotion.

The following is a list of Interjections :—

Adieu! ah me! aha! alas! alack! away! begone! bravo! farewell! fie! ha! halloo! hark! heigh-ho! hey-day! hist! ho! hoy! holloa! hurrah! hush! lo! O! oh! pooh! pshaw! tush! ugh!

Words belonging to other parts of speech are sometimes used as interjections. One or two of these may be found in the above list. Others are,—

Peace! silence! marry! strange! shocking! dreadful!

SAME WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ (75) *But* may be used as a Preposition, an Adverb, a Conjunction, and a Pronoun.

(1) "No one was present *but* me" (Preposition.)

(2) "He is *but* a scoundrel" (Adverb).

(3) "I may be foolish, *but* I do not think so" (Conjunction).

(4) "There breathes not clansman of thy line
But would have given his life for mine" (Pronoun).

In sentence (3) *but* is a *Co-ordinate* Conjunction, but in the sentence,—

"I never go out, *but* I am insulted;"

it is a *Subordinate* Conjunction.

§ (76) *That* may be used as a Relative Pronoun, a Demonstrative Pronoun, a Demonstrative Adjective, and a Conjunction.

(1) "The sheep that was lost is found" (Relative Pronoun).

(2) "Body and soul must part:
This wings its way to its eternal home,
That to the dark and noisome grave" (Demon. Pron.)

(3) "*That* man is in the wrong" (Demonstrative Adjective).

(4) "I know *that* he did this" (Conjunction.)
"*That* he did this is certain" (Conjunction).

§ (77) *Like* may be used as a Verb, an Adjective, or an Adverb.

(1) "I *like* William" (Verb).

(2) "He is *like* me" (Adjective).

(3) "*Like* as the hart panteth after the water-brooks, so longeth my soul after Thee, O God" (Adverb).

NOTE.—*Like*, as an Adjective, governs a Noun or Pronoun in the objective case. In sentence (2), given above, *me* is in the objective case, governed by *like*.

§ (78) *As* may be used as an Adverb of Degree, as a Relative Adverb, as a Subordinate Conjunction, and as a Relative Pronoun.

(1) "He is *as* tall *as* I am (tall)."

The first *as* is an *Adverb of Degree*, the second a *Relative* or *Connective* Adverb.

(2) "*As* you are not ready, I shall not go" (Subordinate Conj.)

(3) "I do not like such *as* are in the habit of misconducting themselves" (Relative Pronoun).

As is very frequently followed by the demonstrative *so*, as in,—

"*As* the tree falls, *so* shall it lie."

In such cases, *as* has the force of an *Adverb of Manner*.

§ (79) *Except* may be used as a Verb, a Preposition, and a Conjunction.

(1) "I hope you *will except* me in your list" (Verb).

(2) "There was no one present *except* me" (Preposition).

(3) "I will not let thee go, *except* thou bless me" (Conjunction).

The Verbs *except* and *accept* are often misused. People say, "I hope you will *except* of it," when they mean, "I hope you will *accept* of it." The *of* is redundant in such expressions.

§ (80) The same word may sometimes be used as an Adjective, an Adverb, and a Preposition, as *down* in the following sentences.

(1) "The *down* train arrived at 10 a.m." (Adjective).

(2) "I shall knock you *down* presently" (Adverb).

(3) "He fell *down* the tree" (Preposition).

§ (81) The same word may sometimes be a Transitive and sometimes a Copulative Verb.

Became: "The coat *became* him admirably" (Transitive).
"He *became* a great man" (Copulative).

Prove: "He *proved* his sword" (Transitive).
"His sword *proved* a good one" (Copulative).

§ (82) Some words ending in *ing* may be either Nouns, Adjectives, or Participles,—

(1) "*Walking* is a healthy exercise" (Noun).
(2) "I have bought a *walking*-stick" (Adjective).
(3) "You were caught *walking* over the grass" (Participle).

§ (83) Some Verbs, although intransitive, at times seem to be used transitively, and take an object derived from the same root as themselves, which is called a *Cognate object*, i.e.,—

"I ran a race."
"I have fought a good fight."

§ (84) *The, one, off, since, who.*

The is sometimes a Demonstrative Adjective, sometimes an Adverb of Degree.

(1) "I like *the* horse very well" (Demonstrative Adjective).
(2) "*The* more, *the* merrier" (Adverb of Degree, *see* § 53).

One is used as a Numeral Adjective, and as an Indefinite Pronoun,—

(1) "I have *one* apple" (Numeral Adjective).
(2) "*One* hardly knows what to do" (Indefinite Pronoun).
"*One's* character is at stake" (Indefinite Pronoun).

Off is sometimes an Adverb, sometimes a Preposition,—

(1) "I shall send you *off* without notice" (Adverb).
(2) "The child fell *off* the table" (Preposition).

We sometimes hear such expressions as,—

"He fell off *of* the horse."

These expressions are, of course, vulgarisms.

Since is used both as a Conjunction and a Preposition,—

(1) "*Since* you will not obey me I shall call your father" (Conjunction).
(2) "I have not seen you *since* the day you left" (Preposition).

Who is sometimes used indefinitely, and is given by Adams as one of the Indefinite Pronouns, *e.g.*,—

"*Who* knows how the matter may end?"

PECULIAR CONSTRUCTIONS AND USES OF WORDS.

§ (85) In such phrases as,—

"Bread *to eat;*" "House *to let;*"

we have the *active form* of the Infinitive, which in such cases is the Gerund or Supine, but it has a *passive signification.*

Bread *to eat* = Bread *to be eaten*;
House *to let* = House *to be let.*

The Verbs, in both instances, are transitive, and in such constructions the infinitive has the force of an Adjective. It should be parsed thus, taking for instance, *Bread to eat,*—

To eat: Supine or Gerund, with *active form* but *passive signification*, transitive, imperfect, qualifying the Noun "Bread."

The same form of the infinitive is seen in, "I have a horse *to sell,*" i.e., "*to be sold,*" and similar sentences.

In Latin, the deponent verbs have a *passive form* with an active *signification;* in the case of the above use of the infinitive just the opposite is seen; it has an *active form* with a *passive signification.*

§ (86) *Sure, afraid,* and *worth.*

Sure and *afraid* are Adjectives which take an indirect object.

"He is sure *to succeed*" (Infinitive, indirect object).

"I am sure *that you are mistaken*" (Noun sentence, indirect object).

"I am afraid *to try*" (Infinitive, indirect object).

"I am afraid *you will make a mistake*" (Noun sentence, indirect object).

In the sentence, "The loaf is worth sixpence," *worth* is an Adjective, qualifying *loaf,* and taking the adverbial object *sixpence,* denoting *how much* the loaf is worth.

Worthy, another form of this Adjective, is generally followed by the *passive infinitive* which it governs, or by a *prepositional phrase*, as,—

"He is worthy *to be elected.*"
"He is worthy *of praise.*"

Worth is sometimes used with the apparent meaning of *becoming* or *meet for*, as,—

"Woe *worth* the day;" *that is*, "Woe *becoming* the day;"
Or "*Meet for* the day;" or "*Suited to* the day."

§ (87) *Ago.* This word is in reality the perfect participle of the Verb *go.*

In Anglo-Saxon the passive and perfect participle had a prefix *ge*, which sometimes assumed the forms *i* and *y*. The *a* in *ago*, is a corruption of this prefix. So that, "*Three weeks ago*" means "Three weeks *gone*," or "*having gone.*" "*It happened long ago*," means "It happened *a* long (*time having gone since*)." This prefix is retained in *yclept* which means "called;" *e.g.*—

"Ye Annuale Whytebaite Dinner
of
Hyr Majestye's Ministers,
On Wednesdaie, ye 14th August, 1878,
Atte ye Hostelrie *yclept*
Ye Shippe, atte Greenwiche."

This is written in ancient English, but the participle *yclept* still survives in the same form.

The meaning of the last two lines of the above is,—

"At the hostelry (here *hotel*) called the Ship, at Greenwich."

How the form *ago* has been obtained will be seen from the following,—

Perfect participle of Anglo-Saxon, *gan* = go.
(Gegangen, gegan, gan), i-gan, a-gan, a-gone, a-go.

§ (88) *If, well, alone.*

The Conjunction *if* is derived from *gif*, the imperative of *gifan*, and is equivalent to *given* or *granted.*

When we say,—

"If the man who has money makes good use of it,"

we mean,—

"*Given* or *granted* (or *allow that*) the man who has money makes good use of it."

It has already been said (§ 32) that *if* is frequently used to introduce a sentence containing a Verb in the *Subjunctive Mood.* This, however, is not invariably the case. If the sentence which it introduces does not express *doubt* or *condition,* the Verb is in the *Indicative Mood.*

Thus we say,—

"If the man *has* money, why should he spend it?" (Indicative).

Here there is no doubt whatever, we know for a fact that the man has money.

But in the sentence,—

"If he *have* money, he will surely pay his debts" (Subjunctive);

it is uncertain whether or not he has money; doubt is implied, and for this reason the subjunctive is used.

Well and *alone* are Adjectives which never qualify *attributively;* they are never placed before the Nouns they qualify. The state indicated by these Adjectives is always *predicated* of the things to which they refer, thus,—

"He is *well;*" "He is *alone.*"

Sometimes *well* qualifies *factitively,* e.g.,—

"The medicine made him *well.*"

The Adjective qualifies *factitively* when it is used in such a way as to denote that the state of things indicated by it is the result of an action.

Other Adjectives used like *well* and *alone,* are,—

Averse, afraid, conformable, &c.

§ (89) The forms *meseems* and *methinks* have been already alluded to. They are *Impersonal Verbs.*

The Verb *think*, in *methinks*, must not be confounded with the regular verb *think*, the past tense of which is *I thought*, and the perfect participle *thought*.

In Anglo-Saxon there are two Verbs, *thencan*, think, which is the ordinary Verb, and *thincan*, seem. The latter is found only in the 3rd person. The Pronoun usually found before it is in the dative case, and the subject is the sentence that follows the Verb (*see* Adams, § 376).

In the sentence,—

"Methinks the lady doth protest too much,"

the subject of the Verb is,—

"The lady doth protest too much;"

and the whole may be rendered,—

"It (viz., that 'the lady doth protest too much') seems to me."

Although therefore the Verb is spoken of as an impersonal Verb, the subject of the Verb is really expressed, and *it* is only in *apposition* with it.

SYNTAX.

I.—Remarks on the Kinds of Sentences.

§ (90) The word *Syntax* is derived from two Greek words,—*syn*, meaning together, and *taxis*, arrangement; and Syntax treats of the arrangement of words in sentences.

The meaning of the words *sentence*, *clause*, and *phrase* must be clearly understood.

A *Sentence* is a thought expressed in words.

Sentences are either *simple* or *complex* or *compound*.

A *Simple Sentence* is a sentence which contains one finite Verb, as,—

"John struck William." "I am a man."

Two or more simple sentences joined together form either a *Complex* or a *Compound Sentence*.

The simple sentences forming a complex or compound sentence are generally called *Clauses*.

Clauses are of two kinds, *Principal* and *Subordinate*.

Principal Clauses are those which may be used alone, and convey a complete meaning, as,—

"John is a man who can not be trusted."

Here there are two simple sentences or clauses,—

"John is a man," *and* "who can not be trusted."

Of these, only "John is a man" can be used by itself with a complete meaning. It is therefore called a *Principal Clause*.

Subordinate Clauses are those which can be used only in connection with *principal clauses*, and have no definite meaning apart from the principal clauses on which they are dependent.

In the above, for instance,—

"John is a man, who can not be trusted,"

the latter clause, "who can not be trusted," has no definite meaning apart from the principal clause, "John is a man;" it is subjoined to it, and dependent upon it, and is therefore called a *Subordinate Clause.*

A *Complex Sentence* consists of one principal with one or more subordinate clauses, as,—

"John is a man, who can not be trusted;
I do begin to think
That I have strained her nearer to my bosom."

The *principal* clauses in the above are,—

"John is a man," *and* "I do begin to think."

The *subordinate* clauses are,—

"Who can not be trusted," *and* "that I have strained her nearer to my bosom."

A *Compound Sentence* consists of two or more Principal Clauses which are of equal value, as,—

"John is going to school and I am going to town, but I shall soon return."

The Principal Clauses are,—

(1) "John is going to school."
(2) "I am going to town."
(3) "I shall soon return."

The individual clauses of a Compound Sentence are called *Co-ordinate Clauses.*

§ (91) Subordinate Clauses are of three kinds,—

(1) Noun; (2) Adjectival; (3) Adverbial.

A *Noun Clause* is a clause which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to a Noun, thus,—

(1) "I know *that he did this.*"
(2) "*That he did this* is certain,"

In (1) "*That he did this,*" is the object of the Verb "*know,*" thus occupying the place of a Noun.

And in (2) "*That he did this,*" is the subject of the Verb "is," and likewise occupies the place of a Noun.

An *Adjectival Clause* is a clause which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an Adjective, thus,—

(1) "(He) *who steals my purse* steals trash."

(2) "Presume not that I am the thing *I was.*"

In (1) "*who steals my purse*" is an Adjectival Sentence, qualifying "*he.*"

And in (2) "*I was*" is an Adjectival Sentence, qualifying "*thing.*"

An *Adverbial Clause* is a clause which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an Adverb, thus,—

(1) "He came *before I arrived.*"

(2) "And sighs might sooner fail *than cause to sigh.*"

In (1) "*before I arrived*" is an Adverbial Sentence, modifying "*came.*"

And in (2) "*than cause to sigh*" is an Adverbial Sentence, modifying "*fail.*"

§ (92) It will be seen that sentences have been classified in two ways,—

(1) *According to their Construction*, into Simple, Complex or Compound.

(2) *According to the relation* which they bear to each other, into Principal and Subordinate.

§ (93) Some sentences again receive special names on account of some peculiarity in their construction.

(1) *Elliptical.* An Elliptical Sentence is one in which one of the clauses is not expressed in full, but in which the part to be supplied is suggested by what is expressed in the other clause, *e.g.*,—

"William is taller than I."

The second clause is not expressed in full. In full it would be,—

"William is taller than I am tall."

Although what is supplied is suggested by the principal clause, it will be seen that what is supplied is not identical

in form with the corresponding part of the principal clause, and it need not necessarily be. Similarly,—

"I am not so wealthy as you think,"

would be, in full,—

"I am not so wealthy as you think *I am wealthy*."

(2) *Contracted.* It sometimes happens that Co-ordinate Clauses have the same subject, the same predicate, the same object, or the same adverbial adjunct, and that this common part is expressed but once. When such is the case the Compound Sentence, which the Co-ordinate Clauses form, is said to be *contracted*, thus,—

"He is rich, but not generous;" *i.e.*, "He is rich, but (*he is*) not generous."

In this case the two Co-ordinate Clauses have the same subject and the same finite Verb. Again,

"I kicked and killed him," *i.e.*, "I kicked (*him*) and (*I*) killed him."

In this case the two clauses have the same subject, which is expressed but once, and the same object, which is expressed but once.

And in the sentence,—

"He sings and writes well,"

the subject and adverbial adjunct are expressed but once. In full it would be,—

"He sings (*well*) and (*he*) writes well."

All these are examples of Contracted Sentences.

It will doubtless have been noticed that an *elliptical* clause is always a *subordinate* clause, whereas a *contracted* clause is *co-ordinate;* and, as has been stated above, that in a *contracted* sentence the part to be supplied is *common* to each clause, whereas in an *elliptical clause* the part to be supplied is suggested by the *principal clause* on which it depends, but is not necessarily of the same form as the corresponding part of the principal clause.

In analysing contracted sentences, the part which is common to each clause must be expressed for each clause; and in analysing elliptical sentences the part which is understood must be supplied.

(3) *Collateral Sentences* are sentences standing side by side, which are connected as regards their sense and use, but have no grammatical connection, as,—

"The way was long, the wind was cold;
"The minstrel was infirm and old."

(4) *Interrogative Sentences* are those which are used in asking questions, as,—

"Whom do you want?"

In analysing Interrogative Sentences, the parts should be put in the direct order, viz.,—

Subject first, then the predicate, next the object, and lastly the extension of the predicate.

The above sentence, when the parts are put in the direct order, would be,—

"You do want whom?"

All sentences in which the parts are not in the direct order are called *Inverted Sentences*, and all such sentences before being analysed should undergo the same process as the interrogative sentence above given.

Examples of Inverted Sentences.

(1) "In the midst of the garden stood the favourite tree." This would be arranged, for analysis, as follows,—"The favourite tree stood in the midst of the garden."

(2) "To thine own self be true," would become, "Be true to thine own self."

(3) "The minstrel on the erring child,
One wand'ring glance did cast;"

this would be arranged,—

"The minstrel did cast one wand'ring glance
on the erring child."

(4) "Endless is the list of human ills," would become, "The list of human ills is endless."

NOTE.—For the parts of which a sentence may consist, and definitions of each part, *see* "Hughes's Practical Grammar."

§ (94) *Definition of a Phrase.* A Phrase is a collection of words conveying some signification, but not containing any finite Verb.

Phrases, according to their construction, are of three kinds,—

(1) INFINITIVE. (2) PARTICIPIAL. (3) PREPOSITIONAL.

"It will be good sport *to hunt the hare*" (Infinitive).

"John *having stolen the fox*, ran away" (Participial).

"Men *in the habit of indulging to excess*, seldom live long" (Prepositional).

An Infinitive Phrase may form the subject or object of a sentence.

The Participial and Prepositional Phrases in the above sentences have the force of Adjectives, and in each case are enlargements of the subject. Wherever an Adjective may be placed in a sentence there also may these phrases be placed.

A *Prepositional* Phrase may also form the extension of the predicate, as in the sentence,—

"I went *into the garden*."

II.—Examples in Analysis.

§ (95) *Analysis of a Complex Sentence.*

In analysing a Complex Sentence the subordinate clauses should first be placed along with the parts of the principal sentence to which they belong, the whole being analysed as a simple sentence, and afterwards taken out and analysed separately.

EXAMPLES.

(1) "The man who found the bag which was lost, should at once have returned it to its owner."

Sentence	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
Complex. The man (who found the bag which was lost) should at once have returned it to its owner.	Principal		The man (who found the bag which was lost) *See* (*a*) and (*b*)	Should have returned	it	(1) to its owner (2) at once
(*a*) who found the bag which was lost	Subordinate, Adjectival to *man* in the principal sentence		who	found	the bag which was lost *See* (*b*)	....
(*b*) which was lost	Subordinate, Adjectival to *bag* in (*a*)		which	was lost	.....	.....

(2) "I know that he stole the horse after I left the stable."

Sentence	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
Complex. I know (that he stole the horse after I left the stable).	Principal		I	know	that he stole the horse after I left the stable *See* (*a*) and (*b*)	.....
(*a*) that he stole the horse (after I left the stable)	Subord. Noun, object of *know*	that	he	stole	the horse	after I left the stable *See* (*b*)
(*b*) after I left the stable	Subordinate, Adverbial to (*a*)	after	I	left	the stable	

It will be seen, in this instance, that the Subordinate Adverbial Sentence, "after I left the stable," does not modify *know*, the Verb in the Principal Sentence, but *stole* in the Noun sentence,

(3) "The man who contradicted me knew that I was right when he did contradict me."

Sentence.	Kind of Clause	Intro. Work	Subject.	Predicate	Object	Extension
Complex. The man (who contradicted me) knew (that I was right when he did contradict me).	Principal		The man (who contradicted me) *See* (*a*)	knew	(that I was right) *See* (*b*)	(when he did contradict me) *See* (*c*)
(*a*) who contradicted me	Subordinate, Adjectival to *man*		who	contradicted	me	.....
(*b*) that I was right	Subord. Noun to *knew*	that	I	was right	.....	.....
(*c*) when he did contradict me	Subordinate, Adverbial to *knew*	when	he	did contradict	me	.....

NOTE.—Copulative Verbs, of which the Verb *to be* is a type, can never form the Predicate by themselves. In the above example, one of each kind of Subordinate Clause has been introduced.

(4) "William is a man who despises the poor."

Sentence	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
Complex. William is a man (who despises the poor).	Principal		William	is a man (who despises the poor)	.....	.....
who despises the poor	Subord., Adjectival to *man.*		who	despises	the poor	.....

(5) "I became what I am through poverty."

Sentence	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
Complex. I became (what I am) through poverty.	Principal		I	became what I am	.....	through poverty
what I am	Subord. Noun, completing *became*		I	am what	.....	.....

§ (96) *Complex Elliptical Sentence.*

(1) "I am greater than you."
(*In full*) "I am greater than you (*are great*)."

Sentence	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
Complex. I am greater (than you *are great*).	Principal		I	am greater	.....	than you (*are great*)
than you (*are great*)	Subord., Adverbial to principal sentence	than	you	(*are great*)	.....	.....

(2) "I have more money than you."
(*In full*) "I have more money than you (*have much money*)."

Sentence	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
Complex. I have more money (than you *have much money*).	Principal		I	have	more money	(than you *have much money*)
than you (*have much money*)	Subord., Adverbial to principal sentence	than	you	*have*	*much money*	.....

§ (97) *Contracted Sentences.*

(1) "He is rich, but not generous."
(*In full*) "He is rich, but (*he is*) not generous."

(2) "I kicked and killed him."
(*In full*) "I kicked (*him*) and (*I*) killed him."

Sentence	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
Compound.						
(1) He is rich but (*he is*) not generous.						
(*a*)						
He is rich	Principal		He	is rich	.....	.....
(*b*)						
but (*he is*) not generous	Principal	but	(*he*)	(*is*) not generous	.....	.....
(2) I kicked (*him*) and (*I*) killed him.						
(*a*)						
I kicked (*him*)	Principal		I	kicked	(*him*)	.....
(*b*)						
and (*I*) killed him	Principal	and	(*I*)	killed	him	.....

§ (98) *Inverted Sentences.*

(1) "Whom are you seeking?"

(*Direct order*) "You are seeking whom?"

(2) "In the midst of the garden stood the favourite tree."

(*Direct order*) "The favourite tree stood in the midst of the garden."

Sentence	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
Simple. (1) You do want what?	Principal		You	do want	what	.....
Simple. (2) The favourite tree stood in the midst of the garden.	Prncipal		the favourite tree	stood	.....	in the midst of the garden

§ (99) *Indirect Objects.*

Some Verbs, like *bring, buy, sell, hear, &c.*, take two objects, one of the person, the other of the thing, *e.g.*,—

"I bought him a horse."

The word which is in the objective case governed by the Verb, is called the *Direct Object.*

The word before which *to* or *for* may generally be understood, is called the *Indirect Object.*

In the above sentence *horse* is the *Direct Object, him* the *Indirect*:—

"I bought a horse *for* him."

The Indirect Object which denotes the result of the action upon what is denoted by the Direct Object, is called the *Factitive Indirect Object*, and follows Verbs of which *make* is the type (Latin *facio*, to make), *e.g.*,—

"I made him a clever man."

Here *man* is the Factitive Indirect Object.

The Verbs of perception, *hear, see, &c.*, generally take an *Infinitive Indirect Object*, e.g.,—

"I heard the cannon roar."

"I saw the man strike the boy."

Here *roar* and *strike* are Infinitive Indirect Objects. This is, in reality, the form of the Infinitive with *to*; but after Verbs of the class in question the *to*, as has been already stated, is not expressed (*see* § 25).

EXAMPLES.

(1) "I bought him a horse."
(2) "William sold me a cow."
(3) "I heard the cannon roar."
(4) "I saw the man strike the boy."
(5) "I made him a clever man."

Sentence.	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object		Extension
					Direct	Indirect.	
Simple. (1) I bought him a horse.	Principal		I	bought	a horse	(*for*) him	.....
Simple. (2) William sold me a cow.	Principal		William	sold	a cow	(*to*) me	.....
Simple. (3) I heard the cannon roar.	Principal		I	heard	the cannon	(*to*) roar	.....
Simple. (4) I saw the man strike the boy.	Principal		I	saw	the man	(*to*) strike the boy	.....
Simple. (5) I made him a clever man.	Principal		I	made	him	a clever man	.....

§ (100) *Miscellaneous Examples.*

(1) "Presume not that I am the thing I was,
For I have turned away my former self;
So will I those that kept me company."

(*In full, and in the direct order*) "(*Thou*) presume not that I am the thing (*which*) I was, for I have turned away my former self; so I will (*turn away*) those that kept me company."

Sentence	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension
Complex. (*Thou*) presume not that I am the thing (*which*) I was, for I have turned away my former self	Principal		(*Thou*)	presume	that I am the thing (*which*) I was *See* (*a*) and (*b*)	(1) not (2) for I have turned away my former self *See* (*c*)
(*a*) that I am the thing (*which*) I was	Subord. Noun, object of *presume*	that	I	am the thing (*which*) I was	.....	.....
(*b*) (*which*) I was	Subord., Adj., qualifying *thing*		I	was (*which*)	.....	.....
(*c*) for I have turned away my former self	Subord., Adv. to *presume*	for	I	have turned	my former self	away
Complex. so will I (*turn away*) those that kept me company	Principal		I	will (turn)	those that kept me company	(1) (*away*) (2) so
that kept me company	Subord., Adj., qualifying *those*		that	kept	me (*indirect*) company (*direct*)	.....

It will be observed that the two *Complex Sentences* given above form a *Compound Sentence.*

So = *and in like manner.* Thus we have—"(*Thou* presume not that I am the thing *which* I was, for I have turned away my former self;) *and* (I *will turn* away those that keep me company *in like manner*)."

(2) "Better be with the dead
Whom we, to gain our place, have sent to peace,
Than on the torture of the mind to be
In restless ecstasy."

(*For analysis*) "(*It is*) better to be with the dead whom we have sent to peace to gain our place, than (*it is good*) to be on the torture of the mind in restless ecstasy."

Sentence.	Kind of Clause	Intro. Word	Subject	Predicate	Object	Extension.
Complex. (*It is*) better to be with the dead whom we have sent to peace to gain our place, than (*it is good*) to be on the torture of the mind in restless ecstasy.	Principal		(*It*)	(*is*) better to be with the dead whom we, &c. *See* (*a*)	.....	than (*it is good*) to be, &c. . . . . ecstasy *See* (*b*)
(*a*) whom we have sent to peace to gain our place	Subord., Adj. to *dead*		We	have sent	whom to peace	to gain our place
(*b*) than (*it is good*) to be on the torture of the mind in restless ecstasy	Subord., Adv. to the Principal Clause	than	(*it*)	(*is good*) to be on the torture of the mind in restless ecstasy	.....	.....

III.—Rules of Syntax.

THE NOUN.

§ (101) (1) The subject of a sentence is always in the Nominative Case, *e.g.*,—

(*a*) "*John* struck William;" (*b*) "*William* struck John."

In (*a*) *John* is the subject, and in the nominative case.
In (*b*) *William* ,, ,, ,, ,,

When a Noun or Pronoun is followed by a Participle, but is altogether independent of the sentence with which it is connected, so far as Syntax is concerned, it is said to be in the *Nominative Absolute*, e.g.,—

"*The weather being fine*, we shall start to-morrow."
"*The work having been finished*, we returned to our homes."

In these sentences the Nouns *weather* and *work* are in the Nominative Absolute.

When a Noun is used in an exclamatory manner, to denote the person who is addressed, it is said to be in the *Nominative of Address*, e.g.,—

"John! you ought to know better."

Here *John* is Nominative of Address.

(2) When a Noun denoting possession is followed by another Noun denoting what is possessed, the former is in the *Possessive Case*, e.g.,—

"I have found *John's* hat."

John's is in the Possessive Case limiting *hat*.

The Possessive Case is sometimes expressed by *'s*, sometimes by substituting the Preposition *of* for the case ending, *e.g.*,—

"The *tyrant's* jest, the *Gentile's* scorn."
"The boast *of heraldry*, the pomp *of power*."

The former is usually limited to animate and personified objects, the latter may be employed with either animate or inanimate objects.

When the antecedent to a relative Pronoun is in the possessive case, the form *of* is always employed, *e.g.*,—

"The coat *of* the boy who was killed."

The possessive is frequently found with the Noun denoting what is possessed not expressed, *e.g.*,—

"I went to *St. Paul's* yesterday."

(**3**) When one Noun explains another it is attracted into the same case as the Noun it explains, and is said to be in apposition to it, *e.g.*,—

(*a*) "James the *miller* is much respected."

Here *miller* is nominative case to *is*, in apposition with *James*.

(*b*) "I saw John the *baker* yesterday."

Here *baker* is in the objective case, in apposition with *John*.

(*c*) When two Nouns in the possessive case are in apposition, the apostrophe is attached to only one of them and understood to the other, *e.g.*,—

"Thompson the *miller's* house, was burnt down.
"Smith the *parson's* works, are unintelligible.

In the sentence,—

"John, the butcher's son, was a truant,"

son, not *butcher's*, is in apposition with *John*. This is indicated by placing a comma after *John*. If the comma were omitted and the sentence written,—

"John the butcher's son, was a truant,"

butcher's would be in apposition with *John*.

(**4**) When a Noun completes the meaning of a Transitive Verb or any part of a Transitive Verb, or follows a Preposition, it is in the objective case, *e.g.*,—

"I cut my *finger* with a *knife*."

Here, *finger* and *knife* are in the objective case.

"John having found a *sovereign*, restored it to its owner."

Here, *sovereign* is in the objective case.

Sometimes a Noun completes the meaning of an Intransitive Verb, the two words being derived from the same root. Such objects are called Cognate Objects, *e.g.*,—

"Let me *die* the *death* of the righteous."

"He *dreamed* a *dream*."

"I *ran* a *race*."

THE VERB.

§ (102) (1) The Verb agrees with its Nominative in Number and Person, *e.g.*,—

"*I write*;"	here *write* is in the		1st	Person	Singular.
"*You write*;"	,,	,,	2nd	,,	Plural.
"*They write*;"	,,	,,	3rd	,,	Plural.

(*a*) When there is more than one subject, the Verb must be plural, although each subject is singular, and although they are not connected by Conjunctions, *e.g.*,—

"Horror and doubt *distract*
His troubled thoughts."

"Art, empire, earth itself, to change *are* doomed."

(*b*) When two subjects are connected by *and*, the one affirmative, the other negative, the Verb agrees with the affirmative, *e.g.*,—

"Our own heart, and not other men's opinions,
Forms our true honour."

(*c*) When two singular subjects are connected by *as well as*, the Verb is singular, *e.g.*,—

"Veracity, as well as justice, *is* to be our rule."

"There *is* a peculiar force, as well as peculiar beauty, in this figure."

(*d*) When two or more singular subjects connected by *and*, are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the Verb is singular, *e.g.*,—

"*Every* limb and feature *appears* with its appropriate grace."

"*No* part of their substance, and *no* part of their properties, *is* the same."

"*Each* man and *each* woman *was* served with sufficient to eat."

(*e*) When a collective Noun is the subject of a sentence, the Verb is either singular or plural according as the predominant idea in the mind is the *unity of the multitude*, or *the multitude of the units*, e.g.,—

"The *multitude was* dispersed."

"The *clergy withdrew* themselves from the temporal courts."

(*f*) When several subjects follow the Verb, it usually agrees with that which stands nearest, *e.g.*,—

"Therein *consists* the force, and use, and nature of language."

"Ah! then and there *was* hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears and tremblings of distress,
And cheeks all pale."

(*g*) When two or more singular subjects are connected by *neither*, *nor*, *either*, *or*, the Verb is singular, *e.g.*,—

"No greatness *or* goodness *is* worth much unless tried in this fire."

"No voice *nor* sound but their own echoes, *was* heard in reply."

"*Neither* John *nor* James *was* present."

(*h*) When several Nouns connected by a Conjunction describe one individual or thing, the Verb is singular, *e.g.*,—

"Here, I tell you, *is* the violator and the murderer."

"Brandy and water *is* an excellent drink."

"Bread and butter *is* good food."

(*i*) If the connected subjects are of different numbers and persons, the Verb usually agrees with the nearest, *e.g.*,—

"Neither you nor I *am* of that opinion."

"Neither he nor they *are* satisfied."

"Either you or he *is* mistaken."

(For above, *see* Adams, § 587–600.)

(**2**) The Verb *to be* takes the same case after it as before it, *e.g.*,—

"I am a man."

I is nominative to *am*; *man* nominative after *am*.

"I made him (to be) a wretch."

Wretch and *him* are objective.

All Copulative Verbs are followed by a Noun in the nominative case, or by an Adjective qualifying predicatively, *e.g.*,—

"He *appears* a good *man*."

Man, nominative after *appears*.

"William *became* very *rich*."

"John, *being* a young *boy*, was not punished."

Boy is nominative after *being*.

(3) Transitive Verbs govern Nouns and Pronouns in the objective case, *e.g.*,—

"I *found* a valuable *coin*."

Coin, objective case, governed by *found*.

"*Having found* the *horse*, I sold it."

Horse, objective case, governed by *having found*.
It - objective case, governed by *sold*.

Some Intransitive Verbs take a Cognate Object (*see* § 101, 4).

Some Intransitive Verbs, followed by certain Prepositions, have the force of Transitive Verbs, *e.g.*,—

"The man despaired of *success*."

Here *success* is objective case, governed by *despaired of*; or *of success* may be regarded as the Indirect Object of the Intransitive Verb *despaired*, and *success* as objective case, governed by *of*.

NOTE.—In parsing or analysing, if a word or phrase may be taken in two different ways, always mention each, as in the above instance.

(4) When two Verbs come together, the first governing the second, the latter is found in the Infinitive Mood, *e.g.*,—

"I can *write* well;" "I wish *to go* home."

For other uses of the Infinitive, *see* § 25.

THE ADJECTIVE.

§(103) When two objects are compared, the Comparative Degree of the Adjective is used, *e.g.*,—

"He is the *better* boy of the two."

When more than two objects are compared, the Superlative Degree of the Adjective is used, *e.g.*,—

"William is the *best* boy in the school."

"Of the six boys present, John was the *most* intelligent."

THE PRONOUN.

§(104) Pronouns agree with the Nouns they represent in Gender, Number, and Person, *e.g.*,—

"I know John, *he* is very clever."

"Mary was always dutiful, for I have known *her* from a child."

A Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent (whether a Noun or Pronoun) in Gender, Number, and Person, *e.g.*,—

"I *who am* less than the least of all the apostles, *who am* not worthy to be called an apostle, &c."

THE PREPOSITION.

§(105) Prepositions govern Nouns and Pronouns in the objective case.

"William went *with* me *to* London."

Me and *London* are in the objective case.

§(106) It will be seen from the above rules that between some words there exists a *concord* or *agreement;* and that some words have a *governing* power, the power of causing certain words which they affect to assume a particular form.

Concord exists between

(1) A Verb and its nominative.
(2) A Pronoun and the Noun which it represents.

Government is exercised

(1) By Verbs over Nouns and Pronouns.
(2) By Verbs over other Verbs (*see* § 102, 4).
(3) By Prepositions over Nouns and Pronouns.
(4) By Nouns denoting what is possessed over Nouns and Pronouns in the possessive case.

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

§ (107) Words in the English Language are of two kinds :—

(1) PRIMARY ; (2) SECONDARY OR DERIVATIVE.

Primary words are those which do not admit of being resolved into simpler elements, as,—

Man, good, true, sun, &c.

Secondary or *Derivative* words are formed from Primary words by means of Prefixes or Suffixes, or by the combination of two or more significant parts which exist separately, as,—

(*a*) *Per*-fume, *inter*-course, drunk-*ard*, king-*dom* ;
(*b*) Hay-stack, tea-spoon, round-head.

Some of these Prefixes and Suffixes are of Teutonic and some of Classical origin ; and as it is interesting and instructive to know whence these are derived, a list of the principal of them and the languages from which they are obtained is given below.

§ (108).

I.—SAXON OR ENGLISH PREFIXES.

A - - *a*head.
Be - - *be*speak, *be*calm, *be*cause.
En - - *en*throne, *en*able.
Em - - *em*body, *em*bellish.
For - - *for*bid, *for*bear.
Fore - - *fore*warn, *fore*father.
Gain - *gain*say.
In - - *in*come, *in*let, *in*sight.
Mis - - *mis*take, *mis*trust, *mis*hap.
Off - - *off*spring, *off*shoot, *off*set.
Out - - *out*break, *out*cry, *out*run, *out*live.
Over - - *over*sight, *over*seer, *over*do, *over*reach.
To - - *to*-day, *to*-night, *to*-morrow.
Un - - *un*happy, *un*tie, *un*belief.
Under - *under*value, *under*ground.
Up - - *up*roar, *up*start, *up*lift, *up*set.
Wel - - *wel*come, *wel*fare.
With - *with*hold, *with*stand.

§(109) SAXON OR ENGLISH SUFFIXES.

-ard, *-art* - -	drunk*ard*, brag*gart*.
-dom - - -	king*dom*, wis*dom*.
-ern - - -	north*ern*, south*ern*, east*ern*, west*ern*.
-ery, *-ry* - -	brew*ery*, found*ry*.
-fold - - -	two*fold*, three*fold*, &c.
-full - - -	use*ful*, grate*ful*, bounti*ful*.
-hood - - -	man*hood*, boy*hood*.
-ing - - -	read*ing*, hunt*ing*, kneel*ing*, &c.
-ish - - -	black*ish*, fool*ish*, brut*ish*.
-kin - - -	lamb*kin*, nap*kin*.
-let - - -	stream*let*, brook*let*, ham*let*.
-ling - - -	duck*ling*, gos*ling*, dar*ling*.
-lock, *-ledge* -	wed*lock*, know*ledge*.
-ly - - -	round*ly*, man*ly*, tru*ly*, rude*ly*.
-most - - -	outer*most*, utter*most*.
-ness - - -	good*ness*, weak*ness*.
-ock - - -	hill*ock*, bull*ock*, padd*ock*.
-ow - - -	shad*ow*, minn*ow*.
-rick - - -	bishop*rick*.
-ship - - -	apprentice*ship*.
-some - - -	quarrel*some*, cumber*some*, venture*some*.
-ster - - -	spin*ster*, song*ster*, huck*ster*.
-ter - - -	raf*ter*, slaugh*ter*, laugh*ter*.
-th - - -	tru*th*, dear*th*, heal*th*, dea*th*, bir*th*.

§(110) II.—LATIN PREFIXES.

A, ***ab***, or ***abs*** (from *or* away): *a*vert, *ab*duction, *abs*traction.

Ad, with its various forms, *ac*, *af*, *ag*, *al*, *an*, *ap*, *ar*, *as*, *at*. The form depends upon the consonant which follows it, but in every case it means *to*.

*Ad*here, *ac*cede, *af*fix, *ag*grandise, *al*lude, *an*nounce, *ap*pear, *as*sent, *at*tend.

Am, ***amb*** (round *or* round about): *am*putate, *amb*iguous.

Ante or ***anti*** (before): *ante*diluvian, *anti*cipate.

Circum or ***circu*** (round): *circum*ference, *circu*it.

Cis (on this side): *cis*-alpine.

Con (with), with its various forms, *co*, *cog*, *col*, *com*, *cor* : *con*nect, *co*heir, *cog*nate, *col*lusion, *com*pare, *cor*relative.

Contra or *counter* (against) : *contra*dict, *counter*balance.

De (down, from, of) : *de*ject, *de*part, *de*scribe.

Di, *dis*, or *dif* (away, apart, not) : *di*lute, *dis*pel, *dif*fer, *dis*trust.

Ex, *e*, with its forms, *ec*, *ef* (out of) : *ex*trude, *e*mit, *ef*fusion.

Extra (beyond) : *extra*ordinary, *extra*vagant.

In, *im*, before a Verb (in) : *in*trude, *im*port.

In (not): before an Adjective, *in*secure, *im*proper; *il*legitimate, *ir*rational.

Inter (between, among) : *inter*pose, *inter*est.

Intro (within) : *intro*duce.

Ob or *obs*, with its forms, *oc*, *of*, *op* (in the way of, against): *ob*stacle, *ob*durate, *obs*tinate, *oc*cur, *of*fend, *op*pose.

Per or *pel* (through) : *per*vade, *pel*lucid.

Post (after) : *post*pone, *post*meridian, *post*humous.

Pre (before) : *pre*cede, *pre*sume.

Preter (beyond) : *preter*natural.

Pro (for, forth, forward) : *pro*noun, *pro*duce, *pro*ceed.

Re (back, again) : *re*lent, *re*duce, *re*deem, *re*-elect.

Retro (backwards) : *retro*spect, *retro*grade.

Se (aside *or* apart) : *se*duce, *se*parate.

Sine (without) : *sine*cure.

Sub, with its forms, *suc*, *suf*, *sug*, *sup*, *sus* (under) : *sub*scribe, *suc*cumb, *suf*fuse, *sug*gest, *sup*port, *sus*tain.

Subter (under *or* beneath) : *subter*fuge.

Super, *sur* (above, over) : *super*natural, *sur*mount.

Trans (over, across *or* beyond) : *trans*atlantic, *trans*late, *trans*it.

Ultra (beyond) : *ultra*montane.

§ (111) LATIN SUFFIXES.

(*a*) Noun.

-ace, popul*ace* ; *-acy*, fall*acy* ; *-ade*, ambusc*ade* ; *-age*, cour*age*.

-al, capit*al* ; *-ain*, capt*ain* ; *-an*, public*an* ; *-ance*, convey*ance*, parl*ance*.

-ancy, const*ancy* ; *-ar*, registr*ar* ; *-ary*, gran*ary*, lapid*ary*.

-aster, poet*aster* ; *-ate*, magistr*ate*, consul*ate*, postul*ate*, magn*ate*.

-bule, vesti*bule* ; *-cle*, taberna*cle* ; *-cule*, animal*cule* ; *-eer*, musket*eer*.

-ier, grenad*ier*; *-ence*, cad*ence*, cred*ence*; *-eur*, grand*eur*.
-ess, lion*ess*; *-ice*, serv*ice*; *-ine*, famine; *-ion*, region; *-let*, brace*let*.
-men, regi*men*; *-ment*, discern*ment*; *-mony*, patri*mony*.
-olence or *ulence*, vio*lence*, viru*lence*, corpu*lence*; *-ory*, arm*ory*.
-pede, centi*pede*; *-sion*, ten*sion*; *-sive*, mis*sive*; *-sor*, spon*sor*.
-sure, ton*sure*; *-tion*, na*tion*; *-tive*, cap*tive*; *-trix*, execu*trix*.
-try, poul*try*; *-tude*, forti*tude*; *-ture*, na*ture*; *-ty*, hones*ty*.
-y, mise*ry*, infam*y*.

&c., &c.

§ (112) (*b*) ADJECTIVAL.

-al, reg*al*, carn*al*, ven*al*, capit*al*.
-an, hum*an*; *-ane*, hum*ane*; *-ar*, sol*ar*, pol*ar*, singul*ar*.
-ary, station*ary*, plen*ary*, auxili*ary*; *-ble*, solu*ble*.
-ceous, farina*ceous*; *-esque*, picture*sque*; *-fic*, terri*fic*.
-ian, plebe*ian*; *-ible*, tang*ible*; *-ic*, publ*ic*; *-id*, ferv*id*.
-il, civ*il*; *-ile*, fra*gile*; *-ine*, sa*line*; *-ious*, cur*ious*.
-olent, vio*lent*; *-ose*, verb*ose*; *ous*, danger*ous*; *-ple*, sim*ple*.
-se, inten*se*; *-sive*, persua*sive*; *-te*, unfortuna*te*; *-tive*, na*tive*.
-ulent, viru*lent*; *-ulous*, quer*ulous*.

§ (113) III.—GREEK PREFIXES.

Amphi (on both sides): *amphi*theatre, *amphi*bious.
A, *an*, *am* (without): *an*archy, *am*brosia, *a*pathy.
Ana (up): *ana*tomy, *ana*basis.
Anti, *ant* (against): *anti*pathy, *anti*thesis, *ant*agonist.
Apo, *aph* (away from): *apo*state, *aph*orism, *apo*gee.
Arch, *archi* (ruler): *arch*angel, *arch*bishop.
Auto, *aut* (self): *auto*graph, *aut*opsy.
Cata (down): *cata*strophe, *cata*lepsy.
Deca (ten): *deca*logue.
Dia (through): *Dia*meter.
Di (two *or* in two): *di*syllable, *di*phthong.
Ec, *ex* (out from): *ec*stasy, *ex*odus.
En, *em*, *el* (in): *en*ergy, *em*phasis, *el*lipsis.
Epi (upon): *epi*logue, *epi*taph.
Exo (without): *exo*tic, *exo*smose.

Eu (well): *eu*logy, *eu*phony.
Hemi (half): *hemi*sphere.
Hyper (over): *hyper*bolical, *hyper*critical.
Hypo (under): *hypo*tenuse, *hypo*thesis.
Meta, *meth*, *met* (*implying* change): *meta*morphosis, *meth*od, *met*onomy.
Mono, *mon* (alone, one); *mono*tone, *mon*arch.
Para (beside): *para*graph, *para*phrase, *para*bola.
Peri (around): *peri*meter, *peri*od.
Pro (before): *pro*gram.
Pros (to): *pros*ody.
Syn, *sym*, *syl*, *sy*: *syn*onym, *sym*pathy, *syl*lable, *sy*stem.

§ (114) GREEK SUFFIXES.

-ac, zodi*ac*; *-ad*, mon*ad*; *-e*, catastrophe; *-cracy*, demo*cracy*.
-crat, demo*crat*; *-gram*, tele*gram*; *-graph*, tele*graph*.
-ian, physi*cian*; *-ic*, crit*ic*; *ics*, eth*ics*; *-tic*, arithme*tic*.
-id or *-ad*, Nere*id*, Ili*ad*, Tro*ad*; *-ine*, morph*ine*.
-isk, obel*isk*, aster*isk*; *-ism*, critic*ism*, soph*ism*, aneur*ism*.
-ist, soph*ist*; *-ma*, *-mate*, *-me*, *-m*, dra*ma*, cli*mate*, sche*me*, phleg*m*.
-meter, thermo*meter*; *-nomy*, astro*nomy*; *-on*, criter*ion*.
-sis, *-sy*, *-se*, cri*sis*, emph*asis*, poe*sy*, phas*e*; *sm*, cha*sm*, spa*sm*.
-y, philosoph*y*.

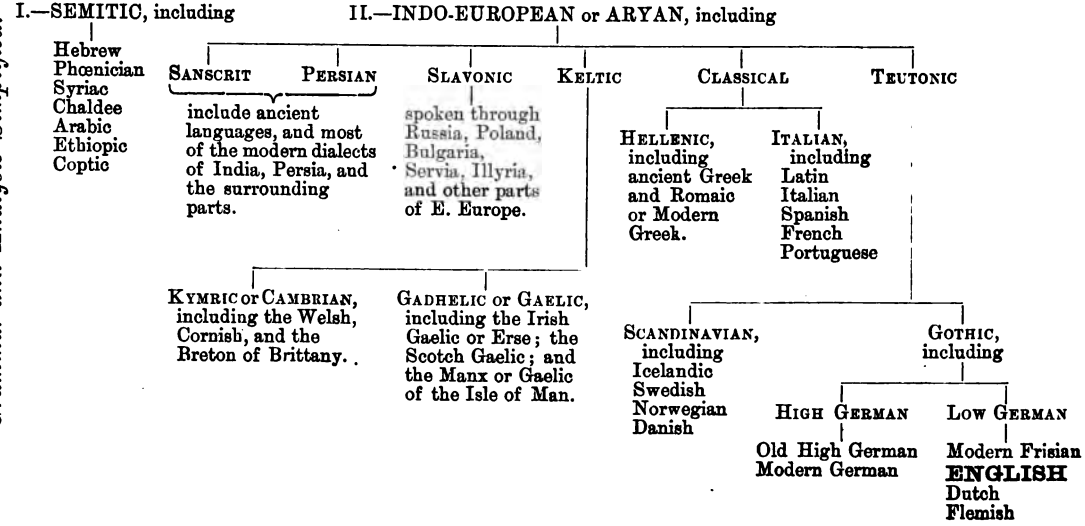
GREEK SUFFIX *ize* or *ise*, in bapt*ize*, critic*ise*, harmon*ize*.

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

§ (115) The English Language belongs to the Indo-European or Aryan family of languages; languages so called because they are spoken more or less by inhabitants dwelling in the regions extending from India to the western parts of Europe.

The following Table will show the descent of our language, and the relation which it bears to the other languages of the world.

TABLE OF LANGUAGES.



BEFORE THE SAXON INVASION.

§ (116) At the time of the Roman invasion of Britain, 55 B.C., the island was peopled by inhabitants of the Keltic race, who, like the inhabitants of Gaul, spoke various dialects of the Keltic group of languages. As the Romans remained in Britain but a short time after this first invasion, the language of the ancient tribes was not affected by their visit; but when next they landed, 43 A.D., they set about subduing the native tribes, and at length succeeded in conquering nearly all the southern part of the island, as far north as the Forth. It was not until the year 410 A.D. that the Romans were re-called from Britain, by order of the Emperor Honorius, and we should naturally suppose that during their prolonged stay they succeeded in making some impression on the language of the native tribes. Such was the case. *Latin* words, introduced by the Romans during their occupation of the island, have been handed down, and are included among the words of our language at the present day. These words are to be found chiefly in local names connected with the great military works executed by the Roman troops. They are,—

(1) *Castra*, a camp. This word is to be found in modified forms in the following names of places:—Lan*caster*, Don*caster*, Tad*caster*, *Caster*ton, Glou*cester*, Lei*cester*, Wor*cester*, *Chester*, Win*chester*, Col*chester*, &c.
(2) *Strata*, paved roads. In *Strad*brooke, *Strat*ford, *Strat*ton, *Strat*field, *Stret*ton, *Stret*ham, *Streat*ham, *Street*.
(3) *Colonia*, a colony or Roman settlement. As in Lin*coln*.
(4) *Portus*, a harbour. *Ports*mouth, *Port*sea, *Port*chester.
(5) *Vallum*, a palisaded rampart. *Wall*bury, *Wal*bury Hill, *Wall* Hill.
(6) *Fossa*, a trench. *Foss*way, *Foss*bury, *Fos*brook.

These are called the *Latin words of the* FIRST PERIOD.

FROM THE SAXON INVASION 450 A.D. TO 1100 A.D.

§ (117) When the Roman power was withdrawn from Britain, the Britons were left in a most helpless state, as the Romans had studiously avoided teaching them the use

of arms. The Picts and Scots, warlike tribes living in the northern parts of the island, that had not been subdued by the Roman legions took advantage of the weakness of their neighbours of the south, and, pouring in large numbers over the walls which had been built for the protection of the southern parts, spread devastation everywhere before them. Unable to cope with these savage tribes, the Britons, driven to despair, called to their assistance bands of men from the low-lying districts of the north of Germany, promising to give them good pay and the Isle of Thanet as a residence, for their services. These bands continued to pour over to our shores for the next hundred years, and having accomplished the task for which they were sent, turned their arms against those by whom they had been invited. Gradually the Britons were overcome and driven westward by these invaders, who took possession of the land and peopled it with their own families. Those of the Britons who would not submit to the yoke of their conquerors fled for refuge to the mountainous regions of Wales, Cumberland, and Cornwall, where, for some time, they preserved their ancient dialects intact. Those who were left behind became mixed up with the invading tribes, and having of necessity to enter into conversation with their conquerors, the latter in time began to make use of a few of the words made use of by the native tribes. The invaders were of three tribes—Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, and so thoroughly did they succeed in reducing the country, that they took possession of the greater part of it, and introduced their own language, which became the speech of the nation. The country was named England (Angle-land), after the name of the most powerful of the tribes, and the language, in its earliest stage, *Anglo-Saxon.*

§ (118) The *Keltic words* adopted by the Anglo-Saxons consisted chiefly of geographical names, such as,—

Don, Dee, Thames, Avon, Severn, Trent, Ouse, Malvern, Mendip, Cheviot, Wight, Man, Arran, Bute, Kent, Devon, Glamorgan, Dorset, Liverpool, Carlisle, Penzance, Penrith, &c.;

a few provincial words and words existing in old literature, and the following words, which survive in our language at the present day,—

Basket, bother, brake, bran, button, cart, clout, coat, crag, crib, crock (in crockery), darn, gown, grill, gruel, gusset, happy, kiln, mattock, mesh, mop, pike, pranks, rasher, rug, tackle, trap, and a few others.

Some words of recent introduction into the language are Keltic, *e.g.*,—

Clan, flannel, kilt, plaid, tartan, whisky, shamrock, &c.

§ (119) The English language of the present day is essentially Anglo-Saxon in its structure. The language in its original state has, of course, been considerably modified, chiefly by the loss of inflections and by the introduction of foreign words. In a good English dictionary there are over 100,000 words, and of these words those of Classical origin are about twice as numerous as those of pure English origin. But it must be borne in mind that the *grammar* of our language is Anglo-Saxon, that in ordinary conversation we do not employ more than from three to five thousand words (our best writers make use of about twice this number), and that the majority of these words are of Anglo-Saxon origin. "It is possible to carry on a conversation, and write numerous sentences, without employing any borrowed words; but if we endeavour to speak or write without making use of the native element (grammar or vocabulary), we shall find that such a thing is impossible. Both in our talk and in the works of our greatest writers, the English element greatly preponderates" (*see* "Outlines of English Accidence," by Morris). Anglo-Saxon was an *inflected* language; modern English is an *analytical* language, the place of the inflectional endings having, in many instances, been supplied by auxiliary words.

§ (120) The Saxon language supplies us with :—

(*a*) The names of most of the objects of nature, as,—

Sun, moon, stars, day, night, light, heat, earth, fire, water, hill, lake, stream, tree, &c.

(*b*) Words expressive of the closest and dearest relationship, as,—

Father, mother, sister, brother, son, daughter, husband, wife, child.

(*c*) The names of the parts of the body, as,—

Eye, ear, mouth, lips, hand, foot, shoulder, arm, elbow, &c.

And words that express bodily action, as,—

Stand, sit, kneel, crawl, walk, stagger, run, leap, &c.

(*d*) Words expressive of our feelings or emotions, as,—

Love, hope, fear, hate, sorrow, &c.

Also words enabling us to give expression to these, as,—

Smile, laugh, weep, sigh, blush, &c.

(*e*) Most of the words denoting the actions of daily life, as,—

Make, cut, bake, brew, sail, buy, sell, plough, sow, reap, &c.

Also the names of most objects connected with practical life, as,—

Field, corn, bread, beer, cloth, shop, goods, ship, boat, house, gun, &c.

(*f*) Most of our national proverbs, as,—

"A rolling stone gathers no moss;"
"A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush."

(*g*) The names of a number of the most common qualities, as,—

Truth, hatred, hardness, softness, whiteness, blackness, redness, &c.

Also the names of the most common crimes, as,—

Murder, theft, robbery;

and words denoting the committal of these, as,—

Kill, steal, lie, cheat, swear, &c.

(*h*) Most of the language of *invective* and *colloquial peasantry*.

(*See* "English Etymology," by James Douglas, Ph.D.)

§ (121) SECOND LATIN PERIOD.

In the year 597 A.D. Pope Gregory sent over to Britain Augustine, with forty monks, to preach Christianity. Many words connected with Christian worship were brought into use by them; "and others connected with social institutions and natural productions previously unknown to the Angles."

(1) *Relating to Christian worship.*

Alms, angel, apostle, bishop, canon, church, clerk, deacon, heretic, hymn, martyr, minster, monk, priest, psalm, psalter, stole, synod, altar, chalice, cloister, cowl, creed, cross, disciple, feast, font, mass, offer, pagan, pall, porch, preach, saint, shrine, sacrament.

(2) *Miscellaneous words.*

Cymbal, epistle, giant, metre, plaster, philosopher, rheum, school, theatre, acid, anchor, axle, ark, belt, candle, castle, crown, chancellor, &c., &c.

(3) *Names of natural objects.*

Agate, anise, camel, crystal, myrrh, sponge, sycamore, box, cedar, chalk, cherry, cucumber, elm, fig, laurel, lettuce, lily, lion, &c., &c.

(*See* "The Elements of the English Language," by Ernest Adams, Ph.D., &c.)

§ (122) WORDS OF SCANDINAVIAN ORIGIN.

The language was next affected, though to no very considerable extent, by the invasion of the Danes, who in the year 787 A.D. first landed on the shores of England, and established themselves chiefly on the eastern coasts. Their various incursions spread over a period of about 250 years. The Norwegians accompanied the Danes in these incursions, and traces of words used by the two peoples are to be found.

The Norwegian element prevailed mostly north of the river Tees; the Danish element south of it.

TRACES.—(1) *By*, in the names of towns, as Whit*by*, Der*by*, Ten*by*. This latter name would seem to show that the Danes penetrated the country as far as Wales. The Norwegian form for this termination *by* is *wick*, changed in many instances in English to *wich*. The termination means *town*.

(2) *Scaw*, meaning *wood*, as in *Scaw* Fell.
(3) *holm* ,, *island* ,, Lang*holm*.
(4) *ey* ,, *island* ,, Ork*ney*.
(5) *force* ,, *waterfall* ,, Stockgill *Force* (the name of a fall at Ambleside, situated at the head of Lake Windermere).
(6) *ness*, meaning *headland*, as Fur*ness*.

§ (123) NORMAN-FRENCH WORDS.

Edward the Confessor, who ascended the throne of England 1041 A.D. when he was forty years of age, was almost a naturalized Frenchman, having spent twenty-seven years at the Norman court. On becoming king he regarded with especial favour the associates of his youth, and bestowed upon them some of the chief offices of the state. In addition to this, the French language and fashions were adopted at the English court; and lawyers wrote their deeds, and clergymen their sermons, in Norman-French. In this way there was another influx of foreign words into our language. Norman-French was a dialect of the French—which is itself a Latin language—spoken in Normandy and the northern parts of France; and as many words came into our language from the Latin through the medium of the French at this time, the words introduced are sometimes spoken of as "*the words of the third Latin period.*" Words of the same kind continued to be imported into our language after the Conquest, but in much larger numbers; and to some extent, at this time, the *grammar* of the language was affected, having a tendency, on account of the many changes introduced by the conquerors, to become analytical instead of synthetical.

§ (124) The words introduced at this period related chiefly to *feudalism*, *war*, *law*, and the *chase*.

(1) *Feudalism* and *war*.

Aid, armour, array, assault, banner, baron, battle, buckler, captain, chivalry, dower, fealty, hauberk, herald, homage, lance, mail, scutage, scutcheon, tallage, tenant, trumpet, vassal, vizor, war, ward, warden.

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(2) *Law.*

Advocate, approver, arrest, assize, case, contract, estate, fee, felony, judge, justice, larceny, paramount, plea, sentence, statute, sue, suit, surety, &c.

(3) *The Chase.*

Bay, brace, chase, falconer, forest, leash, mew, quarry, reclaim, sport, venison, &c.

(*See* Adams.)

In addition to the above many other words of a general character were introduced.

§ (125) The fact of the Latin coming to us indirectly through the Norman-French, accounts for the presence of so many different words which have a similarity of meaning, other forms being in use which have come directly from the Latin.

Introduced by Norman-French.	Borrowed Directly from the Latin.
Balm	balsam
Caitiff	captive
Frail	fragile
Penance	penitence.
Sure	secure
Major	major
Nourishment	nutriment
Poor	pauper
Orison	oration
Loyal	legal
Privy	private
Royal	regal
Rule	regulate
&c.	&c.

§ (126) For some time it seemed doubtful whether the Anglo-Saxon or the Norman-French would become the language of the nation, but with the amalgamation of the races, from about 1150 to 1300 A.D., came about an amalgamation of the two languages, the Anglo-Saxon winning the day, but obtaining many valuable additions from the Norman-French. The language fused out of these two is, for many purposes, according to Macaulay, "inferior to the tongue of Greece alone."

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LANGUAGE.

FROM ABOUT 800 A.D. TO 1100 A.D.

§ (127) The language of this period contained a large proportion of monosyllabic words, and, as has been above stated, was an inflected language.

Grammatical Peculiarities.

(1) There were three declensions and five cases.
(2) Gender was indicated by the termination of the nominative.
(3) The plural terminations were *as*, *an*, *a*, *e*, *o*, *u*.
(4) The Definite Article was inflected.
(5) Adjectives agreed with the Nouns they qualified in gender, number, and case, and varied their forms to denote this.
(6) The infinitive ended in *an*, the dative infinitive in *anne* (*enne*), and was preceded by *to*.
(7) The imperfect participle ended in *ande* or *ende*.
(8) The passive participle often took the prefix *ge*.
(9) In the present tense plural indicative, the endings for the three persons were *ath*.
(10) In the present tense plural subjunctive, the endings for the three persons were *on*.
(11) In the past tense plural indicative, the terminations were *on*, sometimes *an*.
(12) The 2nd person singular of the past tense of *Weak Verbs* ended in *st*, and the corresponding suffix of *Strong Verbs* was *e*.
(13) There was no future tense; the idea of futurity was conveyed by the present tense, with an Adverb denoting futurity, *e.g.*, "I give to-morrow."

(*See* "Historical Outlines of English Accidence," by Morris.)

§ (128) *Literature of the period.*

"The History of the Church of the Angles," by Bede.

"The Paraphrase," by Beowulf.

Religious Poetry on the Creation, by Caedmon.

Translation of the Psalms, Bede's History, and Æsop's Fables into Anglo-Saxon, by Alfred.

A Latin Grammar, and eighty Sermons in Anglo-Saxon, by Ælfric.

FROM 1100 A.D. TO 1250 A.D.

§ (129) During this period the process of the fusion of the two languages of the two races which were also at this time amalgamating, was going on. The result of this fusion showed itself in many ways.

The characteristic of the language of this stage was the loss of inflections. Before the Conquest the language had shown a tendency to become analytical, but after the Conquest this change was brought about in a marked manner.

The Norman-French contributed to our Grammar as follows,—

(1) In Anglo-Saxon, Adjectives were compared by terminations; the Norman-French compared them by means of auxiliary words. English adopts both: (1) short*er*, (2) *more* beautiful.

(2) The Anglo-Saxon genitive had as its sign the termination *es*; the Norman-French the Preposition *de*. English adopts both: "The *man's* hat," "The hat *of the man*."

(3) The Anglo-Saxon infinitive ended chiefly in *an*; the Norman-French infinitive sign was *pour*. English adopts the latter: (old form) *for to go*, (new form) *to go*.

In addition to the above changes there were the following,—

(1) The vowel terminations *a*, *o*, *u* were reduced to *e*.
(2) The Indefinite Article was developed out of the numeral.
(3) Plurals in *es* sometimes took the place of those in *en*.
(4) Adjectives tended to drop case-endings.
(5) *Shall* and *will* began to be used as tense auxiliaries.

These were the changes in the Southern dialect.

In the other dialects the grammar was simplified to a greater degree.

(1) The Definite Article was used as at present.
(2) The gender of Nouns was almost the same as in modern English.
(3) *Es* was the ordinary sign of the plural.
(4) The passive participle dropped the prefix *ge*.
(5) *Es* was substituted for *est* in the 2nd person singular of Weak Verbs.
(6) *E*, the suffix of the 2nd person singular of Strong Verbs, was dropped.

(*See* "Historical Outlines of English Accidence," by Morris.)

§ (130) *Literature and Vocabulary.*

(1) Later portions of the Saxon Chronicle.
(2) "Brut" (a translation from the French chronicler Wace), by Layamon.
(3) The *Ormulum* (so called from its writer), a Metrical Paraphrase of Scripture.

At this period the language contained about 8,000 words, of which about 1,000 were of Latin or romance origin.

FROM 1250 A.D. TO 1485 A.D.

§ 131 Several events during this period tended to make *English* the language of the nation.

(1) Henry the Third's Proclamation to Huntingdonshire, 1258 A.D., was in English, and is supposed to be the first existing document in this language.
(2) In 1362 A.D., an Act of Parliament was passed ordering trials in the King's Courts to be conducted in English.

§ (132) *Grammar.* During the latter part of this period and the early part of the next, the grammar of the language became more fixed. This was due in a great measure to the introduction of printing by Caxton, about 1474 A.D., which exercised great influence both on the language and literature.

The following were the principal grammatical characteristics of the period,—

(1) The ordinary infinitive took *to* before it.
(2) The imperfect participle began to take the termination *inge* about 1300 A.D., and later on it assumed its present form *ing*.
(3) The termination *e*, which had been so common, almost dropped.

§ (133) *Literature and Vocabulary.*

(1) "Rhyming History of England," by Robert of Gloucester.
(2) "Confessio Amantis," by John Gower.
(3) "Piers Plowman," by Longlande.
(4) "Canterbury Tales," by Geoffrey Chaucer.
(5) "Travels in the East," by John Mandeville.
(6) "Translation of the Bible," by John Wycliffe.

Many new Norman-French words were added to the language during this period.

FROM 1485 A.D. TO THE PRESENT TIME.

§ (134) The language was affected during the early part of this period by the revival of learning in the 16th century, and also by the Reformation; the latter, indeed, was perhaps the cause of the former, for the disputes respecting questions in religion so occupied the minds of men that they were induced to study the languages, Greek, Hebrew, and Latin, in which the Scriptures were originally written, in order that they might be the better able to cope with those who, understanding the languages, thought they were at liberty to explain them to their own liking, and deceive the common people.

During the first hundred years of this period, then, the character of the language was considerably affected by the influx of classical words in great profusion, the result of the enthusiastic study of Latin and Greek.

Up to the year 1523 it is difficult to find a Latin word in the general vocabulary of the language which cannot be traced to Norman-French. Among the words now introduced were,—

Acclamation	cogitation	figurative	judicious	restitution
Ambitious	controversy	generosity	malicious	scientific
Artificial	despicable	impression	participate	singularity
Celebrate	fanatic	impotent	portentous	visitation

§ (135) In later times the language has been affected by,—

(1) The disuse of Latin and the adoption of French as the language of diplomacy and international negotiation.

(2) The great advancement of science and arts. Many words having reference to science and arts have been introduced into the language by modern writers,—

(*a*) *From the Greek:* Telegraph, telegram, photograph, telescope, panorama, æsthetic, lithograph, stereoscope, geology, biology, &c.

(*b*) *From the Latin:* Oculist, dentist, caloric, locomotive, &c.

§ (136) *Literature.*

(1) The Tudor Period.

(*a*) "Utopia" and the "History of Edward V. and Richard III.," by Sir Thomas More.

(*b*) The Sonnet, introduced from Italy, and the earliest blank verse written by Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey.

(*c*) Bible translated by William Tyndale.

(*d*) Bible translated by Miles Coverdale.

(*e*) "Arcadia," a prose romance, by Sir Philip Sydney.

(*f*) "The Faerie Queen," by Edmund Spenser.

(*g*) "Plays, Sonnets, and Tales," by William Shakespere.

(*h*) "History of the World," by Sir Walter Raleigh.

(*i*) "The Instauration of the Sciences," by Francis Bacon.

(2) The Stuart Period.

(*a*) The "Plays" of Francis Beaumont and John Fletcher.

(*b*) The "Plays" of Ben Jonson.

(*c*) "Holy Living" and "Holy Dying," by Jeremy Taylor.

(*d*) "Paradise Lost," "Paradise Regained," "Comus," "Lycidas," "Samson Agonistes," "Il Penseroso," and many sonnets, by John Milton.

(*e*) "History of the Civil War," by Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon.

(*f*) "Hudibras," by Samuel Butler.

(*g*) "Pilgrim's Progress," by John Bunyan.

(*h*) "Absalom and Achitophel," "Alexander's Feast," and translation of Virgil's "Æneid" into English verse, by John Dryden.

(*i*) "An Essay on the Human Understanding," by John Locke.

(*j*) "History of the Reformation," by Gilbert Burnet.

(3) The Hanoverian Period.

(*a*) "The Spectator," by Joseph Addison.

(*b*) Discovery of the Binomial Theorem, and the universal application of the Law of Gravitation: chief work, "Principia," a Latin treatise on Natural Philosophy, by Sir Isaac Newton.

(*c*) "The Tatler," the first regular English periodical, started in 1709; and "The Spectator," in 1711; by Sir Richard Steele, who also wrote many plays.

(*d*) "Robinson Crusoe," by Daniel Defoe.

(*e*) "The Rape of the Lock," and a translation of Homer into English verse, by Alexander Pope.

(*f*) "Gulliver's Travels," by Jonathan (Dean) Swift.

(*g*) "The Seasons," and "The Castle of Indolence," by James Thomson.

(*h*) "The Analogy of Religion to Nature," by James Butler.

(*i*) "History of England," and a "Treatise on Human Nature," by David Hume.

(*j*) "Commentaries on the Laws of England," by Sir Wm. Blackstone.

(*k*) "The Lives of the Poets," "Rasselas," an Eastern Tale, and an English Dictionary, by Samuel Johnson.

(*l*) "The Wealth of Nations," by Adam Smith.

(*m*) "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," by Edward Gibbon.

(*n*) Lyric Poems, by Robert Burns.

(*o*) "An Essay on the Sublime and the Beautiful," and "Reflections on the French Revolution," by Edmund Burke.

(*p*) Poems, by William Cowper.

(*q*) "Natural Theology," and "Evidences of Christianity," by William Paley.

(*r*) Poems, by Lord Byron: chief work, "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage."

(*s*) "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," "Marmion," and "The Lady of the Lake," the chief poems of Sir Walter Scott, who also wrote the Waverley Novels.

(*t*) Poems, by Samuel Coleridge.

(*u*) Poems, by Felicia Hemans.

(*v*) "Joan of Arc," and "Thalaba," the chief poems of Robert Southey, who also wrote a Life of Nelson.

(*w*) "The Pleasures of Hope," "The Battle of the Baltic," "Ye Mariners of England," by Thomas Campbell.

(*x*) "The Excursion," and the "White Doe of Rylstone," the chief works of William Wordsworth.

(*y*) "Lalla Rookh," and "Irish Melodies," by Thomas Moore.

(*z*) "History of England up to the Revolution," by John Lingard.

Continuation.

(A) "History of England," and "Lays of Ancient Rome," by Lord Macaulay.

(B) "Rienzi," "The Last of the Barons," "The Lady of Lyons," by Sir E. Bulwer Lytton.

(C) "Sartor Resartus," and a "History of the French Revolution," the chief works of Thomas Carlyle.

(D) "The Pickwick Papers," "Old Curiosity Shop," "David Copperfield," &c., by Charles Dickens.

(E) "Virginius," "William Tell," and the "Hunchback," the chief works of Sheridan Knowles.

(F) "The Princess," "In Memoriam," "Maud," "Mary Queen of Scots," &c., by Alfred Tennyson.

(G) "Vanity Fair," "Pendennis," "The Newcomes," "Lectures on the Four Georges," &c., by William M. Thackeray.

§ (137) It will be seen that from the Invasion of the Saxons 450 A.D., the history of the language has been divided into four periods,—

I. From 450—1100 A.D. (Anglo-Saxon or Old English).
II. ,, 1100—1250 A.D. (Early English).
III. ,, 1250—1485 A.D. (Middle English).
IV. ,, 1485 A.D. to the present time (Modern English).

Sometimes the following periods are given,—

I. From 450—1100 A.D. (Anglo-Saxon).
II. ,, 1100—1250 A.D. (Semi-Saxon).
III. ,, 1250—1350 A.D. (Early English).
IV. ,, 1350—1558 A.D. (Middle English).
V. ,, 1558 A.D. to the present time (Modern English).

§ (138) The following are words which have been imported into our language from other languages than those already mentioned,—

(1) *Hebrew.*—Abbey, abbot, amen, behemoth, cabal, cherub, ephod, gehenna, hallelujah, hosanna, jubilee, leviathan, manna, sabbaoth, sabbath, seraph, shibboleth.

(2) *Arabic.*—Admiral, alchemy, alcohol, alcove, alembic, algebra, alkali, almanac, amber, ambergris, amulet, arrack, arsenal, artichoke, assassin, atlas, azimuth, azure, camphor, caravan, chemistry, cipher, coffee, cotton, crimson, damask, damson, dragoman, elixir, emir, fakir, firman, gazette, giraffe, harem, hazard, lemon, magazine, mameluke, mattress, monsoon, moslem, mosque, mummy, opium, ottoman, shrub, sofa, sultan, syrup, talisman, tamarind, tariff, zenith, zero, &c.

(3) *Persian.*—Azure, balcony, barbican, bazaar, chess, emerald, indigo, lilac, musk, orange, pasha, scimitar, sepoy, shawl, turban, paradise, &c.

(4) *Hindu.*—Calico, coolie, cowrie, jungle, muslin, pagoda, palanquin, pariah, punch, pundit, rajah, rupee, sugar, toddy, &c.

(5) *Malay.*—Bamboo, bantam, caddy, chintz, cockatoo, gamboge, gutta-percha, mango, sago, &c.

(6) *Chinese.*—Nankeen, satin, tea, mandarin, &c.

(7) *Turkish.*—Bey, sash, tulip, seraglio, &c.

(8) *American.*—Canoe, cocoa, condor, hammock, lama, maize, mocassin, pampas, potato, squaw, wigwam, tobacco, tomahawk, tomato, &c.

(9) *Polynesian.*—Tattoo, taboo, kangaroo.

(10) *Italian.*—Balustrade, bravado, bravo, bust, canto, caricature, carnival, charletan, dilettante, folio, gazette, gondola, grotto, harlequin, influenza, lava, motto, opera, piazza, portico, regatta, stanza, stiletto, studio, umbrella, virtuoso, volcano, &c.

(11) *Spanish.*—Alligator, armada, barricade, cargo, chocolate, cigar, desperado, embargo, flotilla, gala, negro, paroquet, sherry, tornado, verandah, &c.

(12) *Portuguese.*—Cash, caste, commodore, fetish, palaver, &c.

(13) *French.*—Beau, belle, belles-lettres, billet-doux, déjeuner, depôt, éclat, élite, ennui, etiquette, nonchalance, bouquet, programme, trousseau, &c.

(14) *Dutch.*—Block, boom, boor, schooner, skates, sloop, smuggle, veer, yacht.

(*See* Lists given by Dr. Adams and Dr. Morris.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

THE NOUN.

I. **CLASSES.**—(1) Classify the Nouns, and distinguish between a Collective Noun and a Noun of Multitude.

(2) Define an *Abstract Noun,* and form Abstract Nouns from the following words,—

Dear, steal, high, just, wise, good, accept, know, consider.

(3) Define a Verbal Noun, and trace the history of Nouns of this class to show that they are quite distinct from the participles which happen to have the same form.

II. **GENDER.**—(4) Define the term Gender, and comment on the absurdity of the definition, "Gender is the distinction of sex."

(5) Enumerate the rules for the formation of the feminine, and give exemplifications of each.

(6) Give the feminine of,—

Sorcerer, actor, fox, lord, hero, margrave, wizard, executor, mallard, gander, signor.

(7) Comment on the feminine terminations,—

Ess, ster, en.

(8) Comment on the words,—

Bridegroom, widower, gander, songstress, vixen, seamstress.

III. **NUMBER.**—(9) Give the rules for the formation of the plural of Nouns. Write down the plurals of,—

Leaf, thief, fife, dwarf, hero, potato, folio, seraglio, grotto, canto, quarto, cow, chimney, soliloquy, phenomenon, penny.

(10) Give instances of,—

(*a*) Nouns which have no singular.
(*b*) Nouns ,, plural.

(11) Name Nouns which have been borrowed from the Greek, and the Latin, and the modern Italian language; and give their plurals.

(12) Give the plurals of,—

Motto, datum, cloth, index, brother, die, genius, pea, penny, apparatus, formula, iris.

Mention the two forms of the plural where such exist, and give their different meanings.

(13) Comment on the words,—

Alms, riches, eaves, brethren, children, kine.

(14) Give rules for the formation of the plural of compound words, and write down the plurals of,—

Blackbird, paymaster, attorney-general, court-martial, handful, knight-templar, lord-lieutenant, lord-justice, looker-on, son-in-law.

IV. **CASE.**—(15) Define as clearly as you can what is meant by the *case* and *declensions* of Nouns, and write down the forms for the cases in the singular and plural of the following Nouns,—

Brother, footman, Mussulman, princess, lady, valley.

(16) How would you make clear to young children the absurdity of such definitions as,—

"The nominative case does something;
The possessive case owns something;
The objective case has something done to it"

(17) How is the possessive case denoted in English? What does genitive mean? Addison observes, "The single letter *s*, on many occasions, does the office of a whole word, and represents the *his* or *her* of our forefathers." Explain and illustrate the confusion involved in this statement.

(18) Introduce the following words into sentences, putting each of them into the possessive case,—

Lycurgus, Socrates, Cyclops, Paris, highness, conscience, Moses.

(19) What do you mean by the nominative absolute, and the nominative of address? Give illustrations of the use of the nominative absolute, and state what appears to be the function of most of the phrases in which the nominative absolute occurs.

(20) How many cases were there in old English? What remains have we of the inflections of these cases at the present time? How would you think it necessary to modify the definition of case which has reference to form, in order to make it applicable to case as denoted in our language at the present time?

THE VERB.

I. **CLASSES.**—(21) Name the different kinds of Verbs, and state what is meant by the terms voice, mood, tense, number, and person, when applied to Verbs.

(22) Write down, with examples, a list of Verbs that take two nominatives, one as subject the other as predicate. What are such Verbs called?

(23) What are Regular, Irregular, Defective, and Impersonal Verbs? Give examples of each.

(24) What are those Verbs usually called which form the past tense by a change of the root-vowel? Are *tell* and *sell* of that class? Mention the *various* classifications of English Verbs.

(25) Give a list of the principal Defective Verbs, and comment fully on the Verb *must.*

(26) Enumerate our principal Auxiliary Verbs, and classify them.

(27) How do Strong Verbs form their past tenses, and generally, also, their past participles? Take as examples,—

Blow, shake, drink, fight, creep, lose.

Give a list of Verbs which are weak in their past tense, but strong in their past participles.

(28) What attempts have been made to classify the English Irregular Verbs? Supply a brief classified list of these Verbs.

(29) Classify the English Auxiliary Verbs, and state which of them are defective, and which of them may be used as Principal Verbs.

(30) Define the terms *transitive* and *intransitive*, and give examples of Verbs of each class.

(31) Explain the difference between a Transitive Verb and a Verb in the active voice. Which of the following Verbs are transitive?

"Lay the book down;" "He was sent to school;" "He sleeps soundly;" "They will be dismissed;" "He ran home."

II. **VOICE.**—(32) Define the terms,—

Voice, active voice, passive voice, middle voice.

What is the auxiliary of voice? and with what part of the Principal Verb is this always joined?

(33) What class of Verbs may be put in the passive voice? Change all the Verbs in the following sentence into the passive voice,—

"The Persians attacked the Greeks again, but they did not make any impression on the little army."

How have the subjects and objects been affected by this change?

(34) Give instances of Intransitive Verbs used in the passive voice.

(35) Give the passive participles, perfect and imperfect, of the following Verbs,—

Strike, kill, cut, fight, write, see.

III. **MOOD.**—(36) Define the term *mood*. State the moods of an English Verb, and define, with examples,—

Subjunctive mood, infinitive mood, verbal noun.

(37) Name three auxiliaries of mood, and conjugate them.

(38) What was the original meaning of the Verbs,—

Shall, can, may, ought?

Give the present and the past tense of the Verb *to wit.*

(39) When are *shall* and *will* auxiliaries of mood? Give examples.

(40) What words frequently introduce clauses in which the Verb is in the subjunctive mood? Give examples.

(41) What objections are there to the recognition of the so-called potential mood?

(42) Give a list of the Principal Verbs which are followed by the infinitive without *to*, and introduce them into sentences.

IV. **TENSE.**—(43) Define *tense*, and write down the past tenses of the Verbs,—

Strike, swing, sing, tear, split, cut, creep, eat, hew, lie, lay.

(44) Explain how it comes about that the past tense of Verbs like *keep* and *weep* got to be pronounced and written *kept* and *wept*, instead of *keeped* and *weeped*.

(45) Give the past tenses of the following Verbs, and conjugate fully one of those marked in italics,—

Work, begin, *cleave*, *choose*, *know*, show, throw, wear, *stride*.

(46) Give the past tenses of the following Verbs, and account, if you can, for any anomalies in the changes which these Verbs undergo,—

Work, seethe, eat, go, buy, lay, lie, clothe, catch, cleave, shut, flee, fly.

(47) Give a list of Verbs which have two perfects; one formed by means of the Verb *to have*, and the other by means of the Verb *to be*. Is there any difference in the signification of these perfects; if so, what is it?

(48) Give a simple classification of the tenses, and mention the auxiliaries of tense.

V. **GERUNDS and PARTICIPLES.**—(49) What do you mean by *gerund?* Give every form of the gerund formed from the Verb *strike*, which can possibly occur.

(50) Give any peculiarities connected with the use of the gerund in the construction of sentences which may occur to you.

(51) What are participles, and to what use are they applied in the formation of sentences?

(52) Give every form of the participle formed from the following Verbs, which can possibly occur,—

Begin, throw, rise, raise, sit, set, gird, fly, chide.

(53) Classify the participles formed from the Transitive Verb *kill*, and also those formed from the Intransitive Verb *run*.

(54) Into what parts of a Verb does the participle in *ed*, formed from a Transitive Verb, enter?

VI. **CONJUGATION.**—(55) What do you mean by *conjugating* a Verb? Conjugate the Verb *to strike* in the passive voice, giving the infinitive, imperative, and the participles.

(56) Conjugate in the active voice the Verbs *strike* and *lay*.

(57) What is the difference between conjugation in English and conjugation in other languages, say the Latin?

(58) Comment on the forms,—

"I strike," "Do strike;" "I am striking," "I am about to strike;"

in connection with conjugation.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I. **CLASSES, &c.**—(59) Give a definition of an Adjective, and show the absurdity of the definition, "The Adjective qualifies or describes the Noun."

(60) Classify the Adjectives, giving as many as you can of each class.

(61) When Adjectives are converted into Substantives it is the tendency of our language to use the plural form. Illustrate this statement.

(62) Explain carefully the distinction between *every* and *all*, and between *each* and *either*, and between *some* and *several*.

(63) Assign each of the following Adjectives to its proper class,—

This, yonder, such, much, every, great, heavy, wise, wonderful, twenty, twentieth.

II. **DEGREES OF COMPARISON.**—(64) Define comparative degree and superlative degree in Adjectives. What is the usual mode of forming these degrees? Mention six Adjectives which do not conform to the rule.

(65) Compare the following Adjectives,—

Rich, wise, hot, neat, pretty, far, little, bad.

(66) Comment on the forms,—

Better, worse, former, farther, more, next, last.

(67) What have you to remark on the forms,—

More, worse, elder, near, next, lesser?

(68) Give the positive degree of,—

Farther, rather, former, first;

and the comparative and superlative degrees of,—

Nigh, late, ill, much.

Explain, if you can, any apparent anomalies in these forms.

(69) Comment on the suffix *most*, in such Adjectives as *hindmost*, *furthermost*, *&c.*

THE ADVERB.

(70) Classify Adverbs, and give examples of each class.

(71) Give a list of Adverbs which, besides an Adverbial, have a Conjunctive force, and illustrate their use by sentences.

(72) Introduce the following Adverbs into sentences,—

Here, hither, hence; there, thither, thence; where, whither, whence.

(73) Give as many Adverbs as you can which have degrees of comparison formed by inflection.

(74) Comment on the use of the word *there*, in such sentences as,—

"*There* are many men who do not know their letters."

"*There* never was anything so beautiful," &c.

THE PRONOUN.

(75) Define what is meant by a Pronoun, and classify them, giving examples of each class.

(76) Furnish a classified list of the Compound Pronouns.

(77) What is a Relative Pronoun? How does it differ from a Personal Pronoun? Parse the words in italics in,—

"The *beasts that roam* over the plain,
My *form* with indifference see."

(78) Decline the Pronoun *I* throughout in both numbers.

(79) Decline the Relative Pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that*. Explain, and illustrate by sentences, any difference in their usage. Also state how the relative must agree with its antecedent.

(80) Comment on the use of the Pronouns *thou* and *thee*.

(81) Construct sentences introducing *as* and *but* as Relative Pronouns. By what words is *as* generally preceded when it is a Relative Pronoun?

(82) Refer the following Pronouns to their respective classes,—

What, that, my, them, some, aught, naught, enough, either, neither, one, sundry, certain.

(83) Comment on the following,—

Methinks; our, ours; your, yours; ye, you; aught, naught.

THE PREPOSITION.

(84) Define a Preposition. Explain clearly and fully the force of Prepositions, and illustrate your explanation by sentences.

(85) What are the principal relations indicated by Prepositions?

(86) Give a list of as many Prepositions as you can think of.

(87) What is the difference in meaning between,—

Beside *and* besides, of *and* off?

(88) Comment on the following,—

O'clock, concerning, save, during, despite, anent, anenst, ascant, amid, amidst, except.

(89) How would you teach children to distinguish Prepositions, especially those relating to places?

(90) Give a list of Compound Prepositions and Prepositional phrases.

THE CONJUNCTION.

(91) Give the derivation of the word *Conjunction*, and define fully what is its meaning as a part of speech. Are there any other parts of speech which have a conjunctive force?

(92) Write out sentences showing the same words used as Conjunctions and Prepositions.

(93) What do you mean by Correlative Conjunctions? Give a list of them.

(94) Classify Conjunctions, having in view the kind of sentences which they connect.

(95) What objections have been raised to the use of the terms *copulative* and *disjunctive*, as applied to Conjunctions?

(96) Comment on the words *before* and *after*, as in the following sentences,—

"*Before* that certain came from James, he did eat with the Gentiles."

"Surely *after* that I was turned I repented, and after that I was instructed I smote upon my thigh."

(97) "The Demonstrative Pronoun *that* is often used in apposition to a sentence forming the subject or object of a Verb, to fix the attention more strongly upon the collective idea contained in the sentence, as,—

> 'Experience tells me *that* [my past enjoyments have brought me no real felicity].'
>
> '*That* (a human being cannot be justly held and used as property) is apparent from the very nature of property.'"

Comment on the above.

THE INTERJECTION.

(98) Define an Interjection, and give a list of as many Interjections as you can.

MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS.

(99) To which parts of speech are the terms *abstract*, *relative*, and *neuter* applied? Show clearly the full primary meaning of these terms, and deduce their more limited grammatical uses.

(100) Explain the terms indefinite, distributive, and reflexive, as applied to Pronouns, and give examples of each class. To what other parts of speech may any of these terms be applied?

(101) Distinguish between an Adverb and a Conjunction. Parse the word *as* in both places in,—

You are *as* rich *as* he is.

(102) Classify the irregular forms of the plural in Nouns, and of comparison in Adjectives and Adverbs.

(103) Give instances in which the same word may be either,—

(1) A Noun, Adjective, *or* Verb.
(2) A Noun, Adjective, *or* Adverb.
(3) A Verb, Adjective, *or* Adverb.
(4) Adverb, Preposition, *or* Conjunction.
(5) Adjective, Adverb, *or* Conjunction.
(6) Pronoun, Adverb, *or* Conjunction.

(104) Derive and explain the terms Pronoun, Adverb, and Preposition.

(105) Write out sentences showing *that* used,—

(*a*) As an Adjective.
(*b*) „ Relative Pronoun.
(*c*) „ Conjunction.

(106) Give as full an account as you can of the uses, forms, and meanings of the various words ending in *ing*.

(107) State the different uses and meanings, and give the various forms of,—

Do, owe, *and* own.

(108) Give examples of words that are Adjectives, Adverbs, Conjunctions, or Prepositions, according as we use them. What are Correlative Conjunctions?

(109) Comment on the sentences,—

"I have heard from my father that is in America."
"And every one to rest themselves betake."

(110) The word *as* may be used as three different parts of speech. Form three sentences to illustrate this, pointing out in each case to what part of speech the word *as* belongs.

(111) Comment fully on the word *than*. State what part of speech you take it for, and give your reasons; also illustrate what you say by sentences.

(112) In the sentence, "The sun and moon shine," show that the Conjunction does not merely couple two Nouns.

(113) How do you distinguish between Adverbs and Conjunctions, Adverbs and Prepositions, Adverbs and Adjectives?

(114) Give instances of the employment of Adverbial and Prepositional phrases, and classify them according to their meaning.

(115) Enumerate the points and marks used in written and printed language. What are the respective uses of the comma, the period, the apostrophe, and the hyphen? Give examples.

(116) Explain the use of,—

That, which, what, but, *and* as,

in a relative connection.

(117) Comment on the words,—

Every, which, ought, aught, farther, further, worse, first, rather, hindmost.

(118) Some Adjectives require to be followed by certain Prepositions. Give examples of these.

SYNTAX.

(119) Give rules respecting the concords of Verbs with their subjects, when subjects differing in number or person are both connected by *and*, and also when they are connected by *or* and *nor*.

(120) Give the rules of Syntax and the number of the Verb,—

(*a*) When the subject consists of one or more persons or things, distinguishing the different combinations.

(*b*) When the subject is a collective Noun.

Give examples of each rule.

(121) What is the rule of Syntax for the government of the Verb in each of the following cases,—

(*a*) When two or more singular subjects are connected by a copulative Conjunction.

(*b*) When they are connected by an alternative or adversative Conjunction.

(*c*) When they are qualified by a distributive or negative Adjective.

(*d*) When two or more alternative Conjunctions join subjects of different persons.

(*e*) When of two subjects, the one is affirmative and the other negative.

Give an example of each rule laid down, and mention any exceptions that may occur to you.

(122) Give examples of the following special rules relating to the objective case,—

(*a*) Some Passive Verbs take an object after them.

(*b*) Some Transitive Verbs take two objects after them.

(*c*) The Conjunction *than* is followed by the objective case in certain instances.

Explain as far as you can the reason of each of these exceptional rules.

(123) Write full notes of a lesson on one of the following subjects,—

(*a*) The rules of Syntax which govern the relation between a Verb and its subject.

(*b*) The analysis of a complex sentence.

PHRASES.

(124) Explain the phrases,—

(1) "Methinks the lady doth protest too much."

(2) "I have a horse to sell."

(3) "He must needs pass through Samaria."

(125) Comment on the following phrases,—

(1) "It is quite common *now-a-days*."

(2) "He went *a-fishing*."

(3) "*One* sees all sorts of queer sights here."

(4) "He *ran* a *race*."

(5) "*Methought* I had lost my way."

(6) "Build *me* a *house*."

(7) "Woe *worth* the *day*."

(8) "It happened long ago."

(9) "*The* more *the* merrier."

PARSING AND ANALYSIS.

(126) Parse the words in the following,—

"'Tis gone, that bright and orbed blaze,
Fast fading from our wistful gaze."

(127) Parse fully the italicised words in the following, and analyse the whole,—

"*Fast by* the stream *that* bounds *your* just domain,
And tells *you where ye* have a right *to reign*,
A nation dwells, not *envious* of your throne,
Studious of peace, *their neighbours'* and *their own*."

(128) Shew clearly the different ways in which a sentence may be extended. Classify your examples.

(129) Parse the words in italics in the following,—

"Though *till* now *ungraced* in story,
Scant *although thy* waters *be*,
Alma, *roll those* waters proudly,
Proudly *roll* them to the sea."

(130) Parse,—

"Neither a borrower nor a lender be,
For loan oft loses both itself and friend."

(131) Parse,—

"Sad Philomel! ash, quit thy haunt,
Yon friendly woods among,
And round my friendly grotto chaunt
Thy melancholy song."

(132) Parse and analyse,—

"Time hath, my lord, a wallet at his back,
Wherein he puts alms for oblivion,
A great sized monster of ingratitudes
Those scraps are good deeds past."

(133) Parse,—

"The evil that men do lives after them,
The good is oft interred with their bones."

(134) Parse,—

"The more you learn, the more likely you are to become a wise man."

(135) Parse,—

"Wrapt in thought, he sometimes used to stand many hours without speaking or moving."

(136) What does analysis mean? State and explain the various terms employed in the analysis of sentences. Analyse the following,—

"Would you know whether the tendency of a book is good or evil, examine in what state of mind you lay it down."

(137) Analyse the following sentences,—

(*a*) "He reported that the king was dead."
(*b*) "A man, when he travels, acquires knowledge."
(*c*) "He set off before the sun rose."

(138) Parse,—

"Seeing is believing;" "He thought me a clever girl;" "If he go, she goes too."

(139) Parse,—

"Take the instant way:
For honour travels in a strait so narrow
Where one but goes abreast. Keep, then, the path."

(140) Analyse the following lines, and do not omit to state the *kind* of sentence,—

"Oft as he turned the green sward with his spade,
He lectured every youth that round him played."

(141) Parse,—

"He came home a week ago;" "He cut down the tree;" "He fell down the tree."

(142) Parse,—

"Love is the fulfilling of the law: and therefore if a man hate another, he sins against the law."

(143) Parse and analyse,—

"'Cover the body over,' said he, 'lest his father see it as he passes by.'"

(144) Parse and analyse,—

"My partner and I bought the cotton on condition that the defendant took one-half."

(145) Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics,—

"*Thus* it resulted *that* from *being proscribed* and a *fugitive*, he *became* the most powerful *subject* in the *whole* dominions."

(146) Give examples of Co-ordinate Sentences, and of Dependent Sentences.

(147) Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics,—

"*To-day* my lord of Amiens and myself
Did steal behind him, *as* he lay *along*
Under an *oak*, whose antique roots peep out
Upon the brook *that* brawls *along* this *wood*."

(148) In what ways may the subject of a sentence be expanded? Illustrate this fully by examples.

(149) Parse,—

"Enough for me,
With joy I see
The different dooms our fates assign:
Be thine despair,
With sceptred care,
To triumph and to die are mine."

(150) Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics,—

"When *next* you talk of *what* you view,
Think others *see as* well *as you*,
Nor wonder if you find *that none*
Prefers *your* eyesight to *his own*."

(151) Analyse the following and parse the words in italics,—

"*Unmuffle*, *ye* faint *stars*; and *thou*, fair *moon*,
That wont'st to love the *traveller's* benison,
Stoop thy pale visage."

(152) Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics,—

"Freeze, freeze, thou bitter sky!
That dost not bite so nigh
As benefits forgot.
Though, though, the waters warp,
Thy sting is not so sharp
As friend remembered not."

(153) Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics,—

"If my standard-bearer *fall*, as *fall full* well he *may*,
For never *saw I promise* yet of *such* a bloody *fray*,
Press where ye see my white plume *shine*."

(154) Write three sentences, one containing a Noun clause, a second containing an Adjective clause, and a third containing an Adverbial clause.

(155) Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics,—

"Wisdom's self
Oft *seeks* to sweet retired solitude,
Where with her best nurse, *Contemplation*,
She plumes her feathers and *lets grow* her *wings*."

(156) Analyse,—

"Her track, where'er the goddess roves,
Glory pursue, and generous shame,
The unconquerable mind, and freedom's holy flame."

(157) Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics,—

"*Come*, *lady*, *while* Heaven lends us grace,
Let us *fly this* cursed place;
Lest the sorcerer *us entice*
With *some other* new device."

(158) Parse the words in italics, and analyse the whole,—

"Immeasurable *strength* they might *behold*
In me, of *wisdom nothing more than mean;*
This with the other *should* at *least have paired*,
These two *proportioned ill drove* me *transverse*."

(159) Parse the words in italics, and analyse the whole,—

"He is *one* of *those* that deserve very well, but *are* very awkward at *putting* their *talents* within the observation of *such us* should *take* notice of them."

(160) Explain clearly the difference between a simple, a complex, and a compound sentence, and give examples of each.

(161) Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics,—

"The bird *that* soars *on* highest wing
Builds on the ground her *lowly* nest;
And *she* that doth *most* sweetly *sing*
Sings in the shade *when* all things *rest*.
In lark and nightingale we see
What honour hath humility."

(162) Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics,—

"He *that* robs *from* me *my* good *name*,
Robs me of *that which not* enriches *him*,
And makes me *poor indeed*."

(163) Explain the term *Indirect Object*, and give examples of its use.

(164) Parse the words in italics, and analyse the whole,—

> "Our *friends having separated* from us, we returned by the way we *came*, and *found*, to *our* great *dismay*, that they *had met* with a very serious *misfortune*, *which* it *was feared*, in one case, was likely to prove fatal."

PREFIXES, SUFFIXES, AND ROOTS.

(165) Give a list of Latin prepositions, and illustrate the force of each as we find it prefixed in some English word.

(166) *Different*, *assign*, *despair*. Show the Latin prefixes in these words, with their meanings.

(167) The Latin word *pono* means *I place*. Explain the literal force of the following words,—

> Opposition, compose, depose, dispose, expose, impose, interpose, oppose, preposition, postpone, suppose, superposition, repository, transpose.

(168) Give English words in which are found the following Latin prefixes, and explain the force of each word which you give,—

> Ante, cis, am, dis, pene, se, sine.

(169) The word *traho* in Latin means *I draw*. Explain the following words,—

> Train, treaty, abstract, attraction, contract, detract, distract, extract, protract, retract, subtract.

(170) Give the meanings of the following Latin prepositions, and exemplify them by English compound words in which they occur, viz.,—

> Ad, de, pro, præter, sub, supra, post, inter, extra.

(171) Give words formed by means of the following suffixes,—

> -ly, -ling, -ster, -th, -ous, -ery *or* -ry, -dom, -ship.

Explain the force of each suffix, and say whether it is of Latin or Teutonic origin.

(172) Explain the following prefixes and suffixes, and give examples to illustrate their use,—

(*a*) For-, mis-, gain-, re-, ex-, com-, pro-;

(*b*) -kin, -ster, -ish, -ty, -ship, -ard, -ant, -ism, -our.

HISTORY.

(173) Into what periods may the language of this country be conveniently divided? Indicate briefly the grammatical characteristics of each.

(174) In what way and at what times have Latin elements been introduced into the English language?

(175) What traces have Danish invasions left in the language of this country?

(176) Give the history of the form of the plural in English, and account for the variations.

(177) Enumerate chronologically as far as you can the works written in English between the years 450 A.D. and 1250 A.D.

(178) Give a list of the Indo-European languages.

(179) Give a brief account of the English language and English writers between 1066 A.D. and 1350 A.D.

(180) What dates would you assign respectively to Old English, Early English, Middle English, Modern English? Name works and writers.

(181) Point out the historical order in which the component parts of the English language were severally incorporated into it.

(182) Account historically for the presence of so many words of foreign origin in the English language.

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